THE
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ART. I. *Memoirs of Richard Cumberland, written by himself.* Containing an Account of his Life and Writings, interspersed with Anecdotes and Characters of several most distinguished Persons of his Time, with whom he has had Intercourse and Connection. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Lackington and Co. 1806.

A MAN who voluntarily offers himself to the notice of the public, in the character of his own biographer, will incur the imputation of vanity; and probably with some reason, since it must have been a certain degree of self-estimation which induced him to form the project of writing his own memoirs. With vanity, however, better ingredients may be combined; and instead of judging illiberally respecting the motives of such undertakings, or cherishing any vulgar prejudices against those who make themselves the heroes of their tale, we would rather encourage individuals of cultivated minds, and of active and varied lives, to present us with the details of their mental progress, with the fruits of their experience, and with the results of their matured reflections. Such memoirs as those which are now before us are not more attractive than informing. If Mr. Cumberland has lived and studied to any purpose, it must be serviceable to others to learn from him the history of his literary attainments; the circumstances which in his juvenile years fostered the germs of science, and impressed him "with a love of sacred song;" his habits of reading; his conduct of the heart and of the understanding; his successes and his disappointments; his estimate of life; and, in short, his appreciation of the whole amount of his thought and labour. An intellectual and moral portrait of this kind, if executed with skill and fidelity, becomes as much *a study* for the philosopher as any production of the mimic art can be for the painter.

It will be objected, indeed, that we can give no person credit for being perfectly open and ingenuous, when his character and reputation with posterity depend on his own recitals. What temptation, it will be said, is here afforded to concealment on one part and to exaggeration on another! Who, in

such a predicament, can display that fortitude and greatness of mind which are necessary to annihilate *self* in the love of honesty and truth? Who, moreover, let his intention be ever so pure, is altogether exempt from the influence of self-deception?—That the *egotistic* biographer should be perused with caution and allowance, no one will dispute; yet it must not be forgotten that there are points of view in which his report is peculiarly desirable. He alone can develope the state of his own feelings and sentiments; and to his contemporaries it must be extremely curious to compare his estimate of himself with that which, from external observation, they have formed of him.

Perhaps the biographer, in the situation of Mr. Cumberland, if he possess any generosity of nature, is not so liable to err on the side of self-flattery, as to feel the strong bias of friendship in the delineation of his associates and connections. Here, indeed, the judgment is in danger of being vanquished by the heart, and compliment is liable to trespass on truth of character; yet we are better pleased with the man who over-praises eminent contemporaries, than with him who takes an evident pleasure in degrading and calumniating them.

Whatever in point of accuracy may be the merit of the pictures of himself and his friends, which Mr. Cumberland has drawn and exhibited at full length, it must be owned that he displays great spirit and manliness, and that his Memoirs are creditable to him both as a writer and as a man. 'We mean not that the style is correct, for in many places its character is the very reverse, but we advert to the animation and fire which it uniformly displays. Like an expert play-wright, he has contrived to keep the scene alive; our attention to the principal personage is judiciously relieved by the introduction of anecdotes and bon-mots, &c.; and though he has carried us through 532 quarto pages, we feel a real regret when the narrative-veteran concludes.

Before Mr. Cumberland enters on his own history, he makes a display of the merits of his ancestors; among whom he names with pride Dr. Richard Cumberland, Bishop of Peterborough, and author of the well-known work intitled *De Legibus Naturæ*, who was his paternal great grandfather, and the renowned Dr. Bentley, his maternal grandfather. Some notices of these illustrious men are subjoined, which are worthy of perusal: but Mr. C. is unnecessarily jealous for the credit of Bentley. He wishes to shield him from Swift's inimitable humour, when he is introduced into the *Battle of the Books*, magisterially calling out to *Walker* the vice-master of Trinity to *give him* his *Hat*; and Mr. C. admits 'that this hat was of

formidable dimensions:' but he gravely tells us that Dr. Bentley never said this to Walker; that it was not in his nature to treat Walker's harmless character with contempt; 'and that Pope found an office for Walker to which he was never commissioned.' In any other instance, would not Mr. C. have laughed at such *a matter of fact* note on a piece of ludicrous satire?—The account of Horace Walpole's early attempts at fame is severe; and Gray is named 'the most costive of poets.'—We must however quit the prefatory part of the work, and attend on the memorialist himself; who, after having stated that his father was Denison Cumberland, rector of Stanwick in Northamptonshire, and his mother Johanna, the younger daughter of Dr. Bentley, (the Phœbe of Byron's pastoral,) records the period and place of his birth to have been Feb. 19, 1732, in the Master's Lodge of Trinity College, *inter silvas academi*, under the roof of his grandfather Bentley, in what is called the Judge's chamber. This introduction of himself, so immediately after the celebration of the learning and virtues of his ancestors, excites some real or feigned humility; and the nature of the narrative, which he is about to detail, induces a train of reflections that prejudice us in his favour, for they seem to open a good heart to the view of his readers, and to admit them to a participation of his feelings. It is a soliloquy into which much is compressed; and it is in miniature the life of the author, as it stands impressed on his own mind:

'Here then for a while I pause for self-examination, and to weigh the task I am about to undertake. I look into my heart; I search my understanding; I review my life, my labours, the talents I have been endowed with, and the uses I have put them to, and it shall be my serious study not to be found guilty of any partial estimates, any false appretiation of that self, either as author or man, which of necessity must be made to fill so large a portion of the following pages. When from the date at which my history now pauses, I look forward through a period of more than seventy and two years, I discover nothing within my horizon, of which to be vain-glorious; no sudden heights to turn me giddy, no dazzling gleams of Fortune's sunshine to bewilder me; nothing but one long laborious track, not often strewed with roses, and thorny cold and barren towards the conclusion of it, where weariness wants repose, and age has need of comfort. I see myself unfortunately cast upon a lot in life neither congenial with my character, nor friendly to my peace; combating with dependence, disappointment, and disgusts of various sorts, transplanted from a college, within whose walls I had devoted myself to studies, which I pursued with ardent passion and a rising reputation, and what to obtain? What, but the experience of difficulties, and the credit of overcoming them; the useful chastisement, which unkindness has inflicted, and the conscious satisfaction of not having merited, nor in any instance of my life revenged it?

'If I do not know myself I am not fit to be my own biographer; and if I do know myself I am sure I never took delight in egotisms, and now behold! I am self devoted to deal in little else. Be it so! I will abide the consequences; I will not tell untruths to set myself out for better than I have been, but as I have not been overpaid by my contemporaries, I will not scruple to exact what is due to me from posterity.—*Ipse de me scribam. (Cic.)*'

The biographer does not thus prepare us for a brilliant exhibition of himself, so far as advancement in the world is concerned: he does not write like one who is safely landed, after a rough passage, at the harbour of *Otium cum dignitate:* nor can he conclude, with Gil Blas, by singing

Inveni portum; spes et fortuna valete;
Sat me lusistis, ludite nunc alios.

With all his industry and literary success, he cannot boast of opulence: but, on the contrary, he candidly tells us in one place that to this publication, "*his poverty and not his will consents.*" His early exertions at Bury school, at Westminster, and afterward at Cambridge, are narrated in a manner which shews a conscious satisfaction in the recollection of his juvenile studies. If memory be not assisted by the imagination, Mr. C. was an extraordinary boy, though he acknowleges an early disposition to idleness: for he tells us that in his twelfth year he was at the head of Bury school, and not slightly grounded in the Greek and Latin classics there taught; and that he then composed a *cento*, intitled *Shakespeare in the Shades*, which from the extracts given may be affirmed to bear marks of genius and contrivance, and of which we are solemnly assured 'that the copy is faithful, without the alteration or addition of a single word.' Viewing it as the genuine composition of a boy only twelve years of age, Mr. C. must himself be aware that it is uncommon; and we do not relish that affectation of modesty with which the quotations from it are introduced, when he tells us that 'he is not quite sure that by giving them a place in these Memoirs, he acts fairly by his readers.' In the remarks, however, which follow the extracts, he contemplates them with feelings opposite to those of humility; taking 'the liberty to observe that as the work of a mere novice it is not contemptibly executed.'—When he was transplanted by his father from Bury to Westminster, his genius was not less conspicuous; and he here translated into English Blank verse, Virgil's beautiful description of the Plague at the end of Georgics, B. III. This version (like the cento from Shakspeare) has considerable merit.

At Cambridge, he was ardent in his devotion to literature. 'I did not (says he) wantonly misuse my time or yield to any, even

even of the slightest excesses that youth is prone to: I never frequented any tavern, neither gave nor received entertainments, nor partook of any parties of pleasure, except now and then a ride to the hills.' How few of those who enter at the University can make this report of themselves! Mr. C. was a real student; and his example, we hope, will excite emulation. In preparing for *keeping an act*, he studied very closely; and the septuagenary begs pardon of his reader for detailing with pride his first academical triumph. Though his degree of Bachelor of Arts, obtained with honours hardly earned, was followed by a severe illness, the effect of immoderate application, he contemplates this part of his life with no regret. Indeed he considers the exercises of the University, and the studies appertaining to them, to be essential to the formation of a complete scholar; and since some late writers, in examining the subject of Public Education, have advanced opinions which depreciate the credit of our Universities, we shall copy that which this professed advocate for them urges in their favour:

'I can hardly allow myself to call that an education, of which academical exercises do not make a part. What more can any system of education hold out to those, who are the objects of it, than public honours to distinguish merit, public exercises to awaken emulation, and public examinations, which cannot be passed without extorting some exertion even from the indolent, nor can be avoided without a marked disgrace to the *compounder?* Now if I have any knowledge of the world, any insight into the minds and characters of those, whom I have had opportunities of knowing, (and few have lived more and longer amongst mankind) all my observations tend to convince me that there is no profession, no art, no station or condition in life, to which the studies I have been speaking of will not apply and come in aid with profit and advantage. That mode of investigation step by step, which crowns the process of the student by the demonstration and discovery of positive and mathematical truth, must of necessity so exercise and train him in the habits of following up his subject, be it what it may, and working out his proofs, as cannot fail to find their uses, whether he, who has them, dictates from the pulpit, argues at the bar, or declaims in the senate; nay, there is no lot, no station, (I repeat it with confidence) be it either social or sequestered, conspicuous or obscure, professional or idly independent, in which the man, once exercised in these studies, though he shall afterwards neglect them, will not to his comfort experience some mental powers and resources, in which their influence shall be felt, though the channels, that conducted it, may from disuse have become obscure, and no longer to be traced.'

The utility of mathematical science and syllogistic argumentation, in making us close and correct reasoners, is strenuously urged. Mr. C. laments that the world so much abounds with men whose vivacity of imagination has never felt

the trammels of syllogism, and in course accounts for the prevalence of desultory talk from the neglect of the exercises of the Schools.

Devoted to books, Mr. C.'s ambition aspired to tread in the steps of his ancestors, and to obtain the honours and emoluments that await the learned in the department which they had occupied: but, at this period, an event occurred which unexpectedly transferred his views from the Church to the State, and opened to him a new scene of life, viz. his appointment to the situation of Lord Halifax's private confidential Secretary. Being, however, ill-formed for dependence, and more adapted for a College than for a Court, he did not relish his change of situation. On coming to town, he confesses, he found himself completely out of his element; and his first discoveries had no tendency to impress on his mind a good opinion of what is called the World:

'I found there was a polite as well as a political glossary, which involved mysteries little less obscure than those, which are couched under the hieroglyphics of Egypt, and I perceived that whosoever had the ready use and apt application of those pass-words, was by right looked up to as the best bred and best informed man in the company: when a single word can comprise the matter of a whole volume, those worthy gentlemen have a very sufficient plea for not wasting their time upon reading. I have lived long enough to witness such amazing feats performed by impudence that I much wonder why modest men will allow themselves to be found in societies, where they are condemned to be annoyed by talkers, who turn all things upside down, whilst they are not permitted to utter that which would set them right.'

Experience farther convinced Mr. C. that he was not fitted for public life; having 'none of those worldly qualities and accommodations in his nature which are sure to push their possessors into notice, and which form the very *nidus* of good fortune:' but though he was himself deficient in worldly wisdom, and in due pliability, he was not ignorant of their good effects on the fortune of others; as must be evident from the subsequent delineation, copied no doubt from life:

'A man, who is gifted with these lucky talents, is armed with hands, as a ship with grappling irons, ready to catch hold of, and make himself fast to every thing he comes in contact with; and such a man, with all these properties of adhesion, has also the property, like the Polypus, of a most miraculous and convenient indivisibility; cut off his hold, nay, cut him how you will, he is still a Polypus, whole and entire. Men of this sort shall work their way out of their obscurity like cockroaches out of the hold of a ship, and crawl into notice, nay, even into king's palaces, as the frogs did into Pharoah's: the happy faculty of noting times and seasons, and a lucky promptitude

titude to avail themselves of moments with address and boldness, are alone such all-sufficient requisites, such marketable stores of worldly knowledge, that although the minds of those, who own them, shall be as to all the liberal sciences a *rasa tabula*, yet knowing these things needful to be known, let their difficulties and distresses be what they may, though the storm of adversity threatens to overwhelm them, they are in a life-boat, buoyed up by corks, and cannot sink. These are the stray children, turned loose upon the world, whom fortune in her charity takes charge of, and for whose guidance in the bye ways and cross-roads of their pilgrimage she sets up fairy finger-posts, discoverable by them, whose eyes are near the ground, but unperceived by such, whose looks are raised above it.'

On Feb. 19, 1759, Mr. Cumberland married the only daughter of George and Elizabeth Ridge; having first obtained, through the patronage of Lord Halifax, a small establishment as Crown-Agent for the province of Nova Scotia. We have not time to follow the writer into Ireland with Lord Halifax, when Viceroy; nor to comment on the narrative which respects his unsatisfactory connection with that nobleman. Suffice it to observe that, though by his interest Mr. C.'s father was made Bishop of Clonfert, the Memorialist never adverts to this period without regret:

'As sure (says he) as ever my history brings me to the mention of that fatal step, which took me out of the path I was in, and turned me from the prosecution of those peaceful studies, to which I was so cordially devoted, and which were leading me to a profession, wherein some that went before me had distinguished themselves with such credit, so sure am I to feel at my heart a pang, that wounds me with regret and self-reproach for having yielded to a delusion at the inexperienced age of nineteen, since which I have seen more than half a century go by, every day of which has only served to strengthen more and more the full conviction of my error.'

Having resided much in Ireland, he had an opportunity of studying the character of the Irish; and we are inclined to think that his delineation of it is faithful and worthy of notice. At his father's palace of Clonfert, he composed his drama intitled *The West Indian*; and since Mr. C. has long been celebrated as a writer for the stage, it will not be amiss to introduce in this place the noble and generous sentiments, with which he was animated in the composition of this and other comedies:

'When I began as at this time, to write for the stage, my ambition was to aim at writing something that might be lasting and outlive me; when temporary subjects were suggested to me, I declined them: I formed to myself in idea what I conceived to be the character of a legitimate comedy, and that alone was my object, and though I did not quite aspire to attain, I was not altogether in despair of approaching it. I perceived that I had fallen upon a time, when great

eccentricity of character was pretty nearly gone by, but still I fancied there was an opening for some originality, and an opportunity for shewing at least my good will to mankind, if I introduced the characters of persons, who had been usually exhibited on the stage, as the butts for ridicule and abuse, and endeavoured to present them in such lights, as might tend to reconcile the world to them, and them to the world. I thereupon looked into society for the purpose of discovering such as were the victims of its national, professional or religious prejudices; in short for those suffering characters, which stood in need of an advocate, and out of these I meditated to select and form heroes for my future dramas, of which I would study to make such favourable and reconciliatory delineations, as might incline the spectators to look upon them with pity, and receive them into their good opinion and esteem.'

His *Jew*, produced on the stage many years afterward, is also formed on the principle of combating national and religious prejudices; and it was reported that the followers of Moses had substantially expressed their gratitude: but the author assures us that he was never flattered by any testimony of their approbation.

We shall not be expected to specify Mr. C.'s numerous dramas, nor to notice the periods of their first performance on the stage. His productions of this kind, with his established literary character, introduced him to the acquaintance of Garrick, Johnson, Sir Joshua Reynolds, Soame Jenyns, Goldsmith, Burke, &c. of each of whom spirited sketches are taken. With the view, perhaps, of counteracting some malicious accounts of Garrick, Mr. C. steps forwards to do justice to his character as a man:

'Ah! I would wish the world to believe, that they take but a very short and impartial estimate of that departed character, who only appreciate him as the best actor in the world: he was more and better than that excellence alone could make him by a thousand estimable qualities, and much as I enjoyed his company, I have been more gratified by the emanations of his heart than by the sallies of his fancy and imagination.'

On Dr. Johnson, the author is more diffuse, and entertaining, though one melancholy circumstance is mentioned of his extreme poverty at a particular period, which none of the writers of his Life have noticed. We mark the sentence recording it in Italics. To this poverty, however, we are indebted for the fruits of his genius; since, as Mr. C. remarks, had he not been driven on to glory by the bayonet of sharp necessity at his back, we should not have seen him a front-rank man in literature. He was a good man by nature, a great man by genius, but his fame as a writer was the result of compulsion:

'Johnson's

'Johnson's first style was naturally energetic, his middle style was turgid to a fault, his latter style was softened down and harmonized into periods, more tuneful and more intelligible. His execution was rapid, yet his mind was not easily provoked into exertion; the variety we find in his writings was not the variety of choice arising from the impulse of his proper genius, but tasks imposed upon him by the dealers in ink, and contracts on his part submitted to in satisfaction of the pressing calls of hungry want; for, painful as it is to relate, I have heard that illustrious scholar assert (and he never varied from the truth of fact) that *he subsisted himself for a considerable space of time upon the scanty pittance of fourpence halfpenny per day*. How melancholy to reflect that his vast trunk and stimulating appetite were to be supported by what will barely feed the weaned infant! Less, much less, than Master Betty has earned in one night, would have cheered the mighty mind, and maintained the athletic body of Samuel Johnson in comfort and abundance for a twelvemonth. Alas! I am not fit to paint his character; nor is there need of it; *Etiam mortuus loquitur:* every man, who can buy a book, has bought a *Boswell;* Johnson is known to all the reading world. I also knew him well, respected him highly, loved him sincerely: it was never my chance to see him in those moments of moroseness and ill humour, which are imputed to him, perhaps with truth, for who would slander him? But I am not warranted by any experience of those humours to speak of him otherwise than of a friend, who always met me with kindness, and from whom I never separated without regret.'

On the accession of Lord G. Germaine, afterward Viscount Sackville, to the seals, Mr. C. was promoted by that nobleman from a subaltern place at the Board of Trade (which he had obtained on quitting Lord Halifax) to the office of Secretary; and a friendship commenced which remained uninterrupted till death interposed between the parties. While in this situation, he was solicited by Lord Hillsborough to undertake a sort of secret diplomatic mission to Spain, for the purpose of sounding the disposition of that court towards a separate peace with this country; and he sailed from Portsmouth with his wife and two daughters, for Portugal, April 17, 1780. A considerable portion of the Memoirs is occupied with an account of this mission, of his travels through Spain to Madrid, of his interviews with the minister and the royal family, of the failure of his mission, and of his return. According to his own account, he performed all that the circumstances of the case would allow; and, judging from his statements, the reader must think that he was cruelly and *unjustly* treated by the Government, who protested his bills, and refused to pay the debts which he incurred in the capacity of a public agent. In consequence, he encountered losses which he never overcame; and, alluding to the proposal of the king of Spain to re-imburse his expences, he observes:

'I with-

'I withstood the offer of a benevolent monarch, whose munificence would have rescued me; and I embraced ruin in my own country to preserve my honour as a subject of it; selling every acre of my hereditary estate, jointured on my wife, by marriage settlement, who generously concurred in the sacrifice, which my improvident reliance upon the faith of government compelled me to make.'

It is equally singular that the Spanish monarch should offer to defray the expences of a British agent at his court, and that our ministers should refuse to indemnify a man whom they had sent in a public capacity to Madrid. The reason for protesting Mr. Cumberland's bills, and for leaving him to discharge out of his private fortune the debts which he incurred abroad, is not alleged nor even hinted. As the case is represented, there seems to be sufficient ground for complaint; yet Mr. C. feels a reluctance in making the particulars of this affair public in his life-time, and begs that the sum which the copy-right of his Memoirs produced (500l.) may plead his excuse; since such a temptation, after the loss of thousands, he had no inclination to resist.

The Spanish tour is amusing, but we should make this article too extensive were we to enter into the particulars of it. Not long after Mr. C.'s return to England, the Board of Trade, of which he was Secretary, having been abolished under the regulations introduced by Mr. Burke's reform bill, he retired on the compensation which was allotted him, to Tunbridge Wells; a place which he represents as peculiarly adapted to him, and where he has ever since resided. Here he composed the papers called the *Observer*,—*Henry*, a novel,—the sacred heroic poem intitled *Calvary* (by the publication of which he lost 100l.)—many plays,—and various other works. We perceive in him a mind always on the alert; and since the habits of one literary man may be of use to another, we shall make no apology for allowing Mr. C. to draw his own picture as a family man and a student:

'It is reported of me, and very generally believed, that I compose with great rapidity. I must own the mass of my writings, (of which the world has not seen more than half) might seem to warrant that report; but it is only true in some particular instances, not in the general; if it were, I should not be disinclined to avail myself of so good an apology for my many errors and inaccuracies, or of so good a proof of the fertility and vivacity of my fancy. The fact is, that every hour in the day is my hour for study, and that a minute rarely passes, in which I am absolutely idle; in short, I never do nothing. Nature has given me the hereditary blessing of a constitutional and habitual temperance, that revolts against excess of any sort, and never suffers appetite to load the frame: I am accordingly as fit to resume my book or my pen the instant after my meal as I was in the freshest

freshest hours of the morning. I never have been accustomed to retire to my study for silence and meditation; in fact my book-room at Tunbridge Wells was occupied as a bed room, and what books I had occasion to consult I brought down to the common sitting-room, where in company with my wife and family, (neither interrupting them, nor interrupted by them) I wrote *The Observer*, or whatever else I had in hand.'

Various samples of Mr. C.'s Muse are interspersed; among which are some verses addressed to the Princess Amelia, when she was residing at Worthing for the benefit of the sea and the air. The stanzas contain, as may be expected, the highest compliments: but we were surprized to find *the author of Calvary* so very un-orthodox, as to represent the Princess in the light of a Saviour, who, 'having no errors of her own,' was *atoning* for the people, and 'expiating our crimes by her sufferings.'

In conclusion, the author adverts to the qualities of his heart; and it is a happy circumstance, at the close of life, to be able to pass the scrutiny of self examination with so much complacency. We cannot pretend to say how far this picture is coloured by the bright tints of self-deception: but of this we are sure, that the man cannot be destitute of virtue who can thus look back on the past and forward to another life:

'I have through life sincerely done my best according to my abilities for the edification of my fellow creatures and the honour of my God. I pretend to nothing whereby to be commended or distinguished above others of my rate, save only for that good will and human kindness, which descended to me from my ancestors, and cannot properly deserve the name of virtue, as they cost no struggle for the exertion of them. I am not exempt from anger, but I never let it fasten on me till it harden into malice or revenge. I cannot pass myself off for better than I have been where I am about to go, and if before my departure I were now to take credit for merits which I have not, the few which I have, would be all too few to atone for the deceit; but I am thoroughly weary of the task of talking of myself, and it is with unfeigned joy I welcome the conclusion of my task and my talk.'

Mr. C.'s prayer at the end of a fragment written at an early period, and inserted at p. 128 et seq., is in perfect unison with the above declaration:

"Gracious heaven,
If, as I trust, thou hast bestow'd a sense
Of thy best gift benevolence on me,
Oh visit me in mercy, and preserve
That spark of thy divinity alive,
Till time shall end me! So when all the blasts
Of malice and unkindness, which my fate

May

May have in store, shall vent their rage upon me,
Feeling, but still forgiving, the assault,
I may persist with patience to devote
My life, my love, my labours to mankind."

As the Memoirs are introduced by a display of ancestry, so they are terminated by an effusion of parental affection, in a dedication of them to his youngest daughter.

The reader of this volume, which was composed in about ten months, will not require any farther proof that the author is in the full possession of his faculties. He will probably wish that more dates had been inserted: but of these Mr. C. confesses that he had always been a negligent recorder. Though *simplicity* of style is all that we are authorized to expect in the composition, we were not prepared for such *negligences* as occur in these pages. We meet with 'tolerable good,'—'*shorn* of their *wealth*,'—'I derive all my resources *in* books'—'how a man of Doddington's *sort* came to single out men of their *sort*,'—'his constitution was in its *waine*'—'a foot's pace,'—'acrimonious enough *of all conscience*'—'whose interest *laid* at the mercy'—'fiery-zealous,' &c. Perhaps 'Careatides' for Caryatides, and ὔφνος for ὕπνος in the motto from Homer, p. 111. must be regarded as errors of the press, of which many others occur. These carelessnesses, however, are not sufficiently numerous to diminish the effect of the whole; which is, indeed, so replete with amusing and sprightly passages, that we cannot take our leave of it without wishing that our labours were more frequently relieved by such publications.

Prefixed is a portrait of Mr. Cumberland; and in the body of the work are introduced copper-plates taken from pictures of Bp. Cumberland, Dr. Bentley, and Viscount Sackville. Of this nobleman, the writer is a warm eulogist, and he here bears strong testimony to his virtues as a man and a landlord: testimonies, however, which (in substance at least) were offered by Mr. C. at the time of Lord S.'s death, in a pamphlet of which he now avows himself the author, and which we reviewed in our 73d Vol. p. 473.

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ART. II. *History of all the Events and Transactions which have taken place in India:* containing the Negotiations of the British Government relative to the glorious Success of the late War. Addressed to the Honourable Secret Committee of the Honourable Court of Directors of the East India Company, by his Excellency the most Noble the Marquis of Wellesley, Governor-General of India, &c. 4to. pp. 263. 15s. Boards. Stockdale. 1805.

ART. III. *Notes relative to the Peace concluded between the British Government and the Marhatta Chieftains:* and to the various Questions arising out of the Terms of the Pacification. 4to. pp. 109. 7s. 6d. sewed. Stockdale. 1805.

ART. IV. *Mr. Francis's Speech on the Affairs of India;* delivered in the House of Commons, on the 29th of July 1803. 8vo. pp. 23. 1s. Harding.

ART. V. *Speeches in the House of Commons on the War against the Mahrattas.* By Philip Francis, Esq. 8vo. pp. 94. 2s. 6d. Ridgway. 1805.

WHEN we took notice of the Marquis Wellesley's former work relating to these subjects, we complimented the ability displayed in it, and admitted that its representations were plausible; while we observed that the difference of opinion, which prevailed on the question, could only be decided when the facts should have been correctly ascertained *. If at that time we had been furnished with the farther productions of the noble Lord, we should have expressed ourselves differently: since we must have perceived that his own statements raise strong impressions against the line of conduct which he pursued. In the negotiations of the British rulers, are discoverable an interference in the quarrels of the native powers, with their mutual relations, and with their internal concerns, which must be galling to independent states, and to which they could only be expected to submit through weakness; an influence is directly attempted, which would have established the paramount consideration of the British government; and alliances were demanded which would have invested it with an immediate sovereignty, and which would have reduced the powers so submitting and contracting to a state of absolute vassalage. The terms proposed to the Peishwah, by the Governor-General, are declined by that Prince, though he is surrounded on every side by imminent danger; he persists in his refusal, till the total overthrow of his forces obliges him to take refuge in the Company's territories; and

* See Rev. N. S. Vol. xlvi. p. 396.

then it is that he signs the treaty of Bassein. This treaty was the immediate cause of a war, which, it is true, has been most brilliant, but which on the other hand has cost more British lives than any that preceded it in that part of the globe,—which has placed the government on the brink of insolvency,—and which has proved the source of incalculable danger to our important establishments in those distant regions. How will the Noble Marquis, even on his own statements, ward off the charge that this treaty was obtained through duress; and how does he shew his right to arbitrate in the differences between the Peishwah and the other federate Mahratta chiefs, since he was not required by both the parties, if by either, to undertake the umpirage? The dangers, which he assigns as the grounds of immediate hostilities, are certainly far too equivocal and remote to justify such proceedings; and the conduct of the British Governor, it must be owned, does not slightly resemble that of a mighty chief in these western parts. The European potentate interferes in the concerns of his neighbours from motives as benevolent and disinterested, if we believe him, as those which actuated the Eastern Governor; and if he seizes countries, transfers territories, forces alliances, and quarters troops, it is to establish public tranquillity on a permanent basis, and to defeat the machinations of England. If we change names, and substitute the Mahrattas for the English, the Dekan for Holland, Mysore for Italy, Berar for Swisserland, Scindiah for Frederic, the Peishwah for Francis I., Holkar for Victor Emanuel, or Ferdinand, we shall find that the same, or a very similar narrative, will apply to the proceedings of the one and the other personage;—to those of the ruler of the Great Nation, and those of the delegate of the sovereignty of Leaden-Hall-street.

The 'History of all the Events,' &c. makes its public appearance in consequence of the papers which compose it having fallen, with other Indian dispatches, into the hands of the French, and is a translation of a translation *. However strong we may deem the presumptions to be, the want of the numerous documents, to which it refers, prevents us from forming a satisfactory judgment on the points in dispute. We are aware that these are now accessible, since they are to be found in the collection of India papers published by the order of the House of Commons: but they cannot be considered

* The Editor, who has *re*-written the papers in English, from the French publication, subscribes his preface with the name of John Joseph Stockdale.

here.

here. The striking traits of jealousy of the British government entertained by the native powers, which the negociations disclose, very much arrest attention, and suggest conclusions by no means favourable to the Company's servants. These reflections occurred to us on a bare perusal of the 'History of Events.'—We shall here anticipate one remark of Mr. Francis, which, together with what has been observed, will furnish our readers with a complete view of the heads of internal evidence supplied by the communications of the government of India, and which are now under Parliamentary consideration. It is observed by the English Commoner, that had not Scindiah and the Berar Rajah deemed the terms proposed to them by the Governor-General most humiliating, they would never have come to extremities with a foe so much their superior as the British government.

If the 'Notes relative to the Peace' present not the same interest with those which detailed the particulars of the war, we must ascribe that inferiority in a great degree to the different nature of the subjects.—It is here observed by Lord Wellesley that, considering

'The means possessed by Dowlut Rao Scindiah, and by the rajah of Berar respectively, of affecting the security of the British empire in India, the most desirable objects of eventual war with those chieftains manifestly were; with reference to Dowlut Rao Scindiah—First, the entire reduction of Monsieur Perron's regular corps. Second, the annexation to the British dominions, of the whole of the territory within the doab of the Jumna and Ganges in the possession of Monsieur Perron, thereby rendering the river Jumna the north-western frontier of our dominion in that quarter. Third, the occupation of Delhi and Agra, and of a chain of posts on the western and southern bank of the Jumna, sufficient to secure to the British power the free navigation of the Jumna, and the possession of both banks of that river. Fourth, the permanent exclusion of the Marhattas from the north west of Hindostan. Fifth, the establishment of a system of defensive alliances with states of Hindostan, the local position of whose territories might form a barrier between the possessions of the company and the Marhattas, and secure the exclusion of the authority and influence of Scindiah from the north western division of Hindostan. Sixth, the protection of the person and nominal authority of his majesty Shah Aulumn. Seventh, the occupation of the sea-port of Baroach and of the territory annexed to it, together with the reduction of Scindiah's general power in Guzerat. Eighth, the cession of Scindiah's territories intermixed with those of our allies the soubahdar of the Dekan and the peishwah, and generally the reduction of Scindiah's military power and territorial resources, within the limits necessary for the purposes of our security, and of the safety and tranquillity of our allies.

'With reference to the rajah of Berar—the occupation of the province of Cuttack, and the cession of all the rajah of Berar's possessions

sessions intermixed with those of the soubahdar of the Dekan; and the general reduction of the rajah of Berar's influence and power within the bounds requisite for the same just and legitimate purposes.

'These may be considered to have constituted the necessary objects of the war with reference to its original causes; and these objects properly formed the basis of our demands, in negotiating the terms of peace with the confederated chieftains.'

It cannot be denied that these objects were all attained; nor that the merit of success in his plans is highly due to the Governor-General;—it is only as to the justice and expediency of those plans that a controversy can be raised. The bravery of the British forces laid all India at his feet; he cut, and carved, and appropriated, and distributed, and arranged the whole peninsula, like Bonaparte on the continent of Europe; and the Oriental governor does not less celebrate his own justice, moderation, and generosity, than the aspirant to the supremacy of the West. The august servant of the Company assures them, that the result of the system which he has followed, and of the complete success which has attended his efforts, will be permanent peace and uninterrupted tranquillity. He does not indeed expect that the commotions, which are so frequent in India, will instantaneously subside, but he states that

'The comprehensive and permanent policy of the pacification, which has been concluded, will not be essentially affected by these local and temporary disturbances. The result of the war, and the conditions of the peace, have left no state in India of sufficient magnitude or force, to shake the foundations of the general system of defensive alliance; founded upon principles of justice, directed to the salutary object of general tranquillity, and supported by adequate strength, that system promises in the progress of time, to conciliate the attachment of those great states, whose interests it embraces, and to command the respect of other powers.'

We bestowed praise, which we see no reason to recall, on the ability displayed in the military plans of Lord Wellesley, and we commended his able narrative of the brilliant successes of the troops employed to carry them into execution: but we cannot dissemble the surprize which we feel at the great want of wisdom manifest in this puerile expectation, entertained and advanced in utter disregard of a sentiment which is hackneied in connection with subjects of this nature, and which is finely expressed by the historian: "*Non arma neque thesauri regni præsidia sunt, verum amici: quos neque armis cogere, neque auro parare queas; officio et fide pariuntur.*" It is not Mr. Francis only, (assuredly no mean antagonist in these matters,) nor yet the anticipations of sober and experienced men, but events themselves, that have exposed these delusions. In the room of peace and tranquillity, we have heard of symptoms of inveterate

inveterate hostility, and of eternal war; and we are not to ascribe them either to the machinations of France or the treachery of the Marhattas: we owe them, it is but too plain, to the over-wise policy, the too studied precautions, the brilliant conquests, and the splendid successes of the Company's government *. It is then with reason that Mr. Francis, animadverting on these very transactions, says, "if individuals find their account in the conduct of these wars, they neither are nor can be for the benefit of the India Company, or the nation, particularly in the present circumstances of the Company's affairs." Thus it is gravely advanced by respectable authority in open day, and in the very face of the public, that these bloody contests have had for their cause an individual interest in direct opposition to that of the country. Surely this charge calls for inquiry. If the peculator who embezzles the national money, which his office intrusts to his care, be more contemptible, he is a less heinous delinquent than the exalted functionary, who sacrifices the blood of his fellow-subjects, and the interests of the state, to the considerations of patronage. Sincerely do we lament that powerful and most eminent persons should have come forwards so openly, to screen from investigation a conduct so questionable; and which, as Mr. Francis observes, the appointment of Lord Cornwallis, and the instructions delivered to that Nobleman, condemn in the most marked and unequivocal manner. These sacrifices of the safety and honour of the empire to the interests of individuals, it appears from Mr. Francis's account of them, were made in spite of the decrees of the legislature, and of maxims sanctioned by high authorities; and they have, according to his testimony, arisen not from the deviations of a few governors, but have been the regular and uniform practice of nearly all. We shall here insert the neat recital of the instances of them, which we find in the very able and luminous speech of Mr. Francis, 5th April 1805:

'Look (says the Hon. Gentleman) at the history of India from the year 1765, and then look at the map, that closes the history. At that time there was a Nabob of Bengal, who held the Nizamut by the same title, which gave us the Dewanne of that opulent kingdom. He and his family are extinguished. There was a Raja of Benares and a rich

* It will appear that this article was written before the late receipt of intelligence that peace has been concluded with the native powers in India: but we make no alteration in our remarks on the measures which were previously pursued, and on the consequences likely to result from them; since these negotiations cannot as yet be thoroughly understood in this country, nor their merits be fully appreciated.

domain called Ghazipore. He is gone, and his country melted into ours. There was a Nabob of Oude, in my own time, Vizier of the empire, and the greatest of all the Mahomedan Princes in that part of India. If any of his family survive, they are mere cyphers, subsisting, in disgrace and obscurity, on such pensions, as our Government thinks fit to allow them. *His* country also is annexed to ours. There was a Nabob of Ferrokabad, whose name is hardly known in this House; though once an eminent person among the Princes of India. He and his country have shared the same fate. Beyond him, the Rohillas were a considerable independent nation. They are extirpated, and the whole of Rohilcund is ours. This last possession carried the frontier and the armies of Britain to a situation considerably to the north of the latitude of Delhi. In that direction, the next step must have been into Tartary. Returning to the sea, you will find the whole line of coasts from Bengal to Cape Comorin, with only one little interruption which has since been filled up, possessed by the English. The Northern Circars have been ours for many years. The lawful Nabob of the Carnatic was our old and faithful ally, as long as he could pay for it. He once had many friends in England, and even in this House. All that we know of him now is that his debts have been paid by the India Company, and that his creditors are as numerous as ever; that, by some means or other, his family is dispossessed, and that their inheritance is absorbed into our dominion. You have heard of a Rajah of Tanjore. In former times, we gave him the title of King. In whatever form he may still be permitted to exist, he is your vassal, and nothing more. The Rajahs of Tinnivelli, Travancore, and others of that rank, are hardly worth mentioning. Their names and titles are all that is left of them. On the Malabar coast, we had as many settlements as we wanted or as could be of any use to us. To the northward of Bombay we had the city of Surat, with a rich and considerable territory in the Guzzerat held directly or in effect by us, under the name of a Prince called the Gwicowar. "This state," we are told, "has for its present native ruler a Chieftain of avowedly weak intellects. Our support therefore must be extended to all the operations of its Government; holding as we do, the immediate charge of the Gwicowar chieftain's own guard, and dividing with his troops the garrison of his capital." In addition to all these possessions, the effective government and a great portion of the revenues of the Decan were united to the British dominion by a subsidiary treaty, concluded in 1798 with the late Nizam, who had long been superannuated. We furnished him with an army to be stationed in perpetuity in his capital, and in return he ceded to us a tract of territory, the revenues of which were to pay the army. This force, in a year or two after, was augmented, and of course the subsidy and a new cession of territory along with it. After that, it signified very little what we kept, or what we left him. This measure carried the British arms and power into the heart of the peninsula. Tippoo Sultan was the last of all the Mahomedan Princes who preserved his independence. In 1799 we attacked his capital, destroyed his government, and disposed of his kingdom by the right of conquest. The merit of this act consists in its being in some

measure

measure provoked, and still more in its being, what it professed to be, an act of open force without any mixture of fraud in it. Part of the kingdom of Mysore was annexed to the Carnatic. The remainder was placed under the pretended government of an infant Raja, descended, as it is said, from princes, who had been dispossessed by Hyder Ally. The whole of the country is ours. The name of the Raja is a mere shadow.'

Reasoning from acts of Parliament, and the received maxims of Indian policy, Mr. Francis argues with great force against the measures of Lord Wellesley. His superior acquaintance with the affairs of India enables him to throw light on the matters in controversy, and to examine with effect the statements of the Noble Marquis. Many of these he absolutely rejects, and others he qualifies. He regards the empire of du Perron as a pure invention, and points to striking inconsistencies in the account given of this matter by the Governor-General. He does not allow any superiority to have belonged to the Peishwah over the other federate Marhatta chiefs, except that of being simply *primus inter pares*; he strenuously contends that the treaty with the Peishwah was most oppressive; and he asserts the right of the federate chiefs to protest against it, as being obtained through duress, and formed without their consent. We do not see how the Noble Marquis will be able to vindicate himself from the charges which are here grounded on his projects of defensive alliance. The part which Mr. Francis has acted in this affair is every way honourable to him; he speaks from a full knowlege of his subject; his reflections are those of a sober and judicious mind; his suggestions are sanctioned by wisdom, and appear to proceed from patriotism; the temper with which he discusses is cool and dispassionate; his style is flowing, easy, and simple; his reasoning is close, and his arguments are forcible. On an impartial survey of these speeches, and a reference to his former labours in the same line, we cannot but regret that the talents and knowlege of the honourable Gentleman should have been passed over on a late occasion, and his just pretensions disregarded. While we lament the fact, and while we wish that the party had shewn more philosophy in this affair, we can easily conceive that his friends only yielded to insurmountable obstacles. The testimony borne by himself in his own favour, we by no means deem improper; it was, we conceive, fairly warranted by circumstances; and it carries with it the infallible marks of truth. The honourable Member thus states to the House his qualifications and his claims to be a censor of India proceedings:

'Within these few years, the constitution of this House has been so much altered, that many of the present Members, not knowing in what relation I have stood to the Government of India, might possibly think me an intruder on this subject, or that I invaded a department, which did no way belong to me. If that idea should prevail in the minds of any Gentlemen, a very short and a very necessary explanation will set me right in their opinion. My connexion with India began so long ago as the year 1773, when I was appointed to a place in the Government of Bengal by the first Parliamentary appointment that was made for India. The events of a few years placed me next in succession to the office of Governor General, to which, with a very little policy and good management, I might easily have succeeded. While I continued in India, every part of my public conduct was marked by the approbation of the Court of Directors, in whose hands the authority of this country over India was exclusively vested. The honour they did me was pure and unmixed with any proof of their good opinion, that could be attributed to personal favour. On this point, their deliberate judgement with respect to me might possibly be erroneous; but I have very sufficient reason to say that it was perfectly impartial. On my return to England, I found that two Committees of this House were employed in a strict examination of all the transactions in India during the period of my appointment. By those Committees every act, every opinion, I might almost say every recorded word of mine, while I was in office, was minutely canvassed and reported to the House. In a few years from that time, my conduct and my character too, underwent a trial of another sort, but much stricter and more severe than even a direct Parliamentary inquiry; I mean in the impeachment of Mr. Hastings. For no man, I think, who remembers the transactions of that period, and knows the disposition of those times, will deny that, while the impeachment lasted, I was in effect as much under trial as if I had been directly put on my defence. Through these ordeals I passed unwounded and unblemished; and not only unwounded and unblemished, but finally honoured by a third Committee of this House with such a testimonial under their hands, as, I believe, has been rarely given to any man. So little of the solid and substantial advantages of life have fallen to *my* lot, that I trust I shall be forgiven for endeavouring to avail myself of this distinguished ornament. If a name, so inconsiderable as mine, should have any chance of surviving me, it can only be under the auspices of those eminent persons, to whom I have alluded, in conjunction with their character, and in attendance on their fame. My other titles to the barren office, in which I am still engaged, consist in long possession, without interruption or competition. Should it ever promise to be more productive, I should not despair of seeing myself surrounded by many competitors. In the mean time, and as long as there is no prize to be obtained, I may have the race to myself. Finally, Sir, if I had no other title to plead, the state of dereliction, in which the discussion of India affairs has been generally left, leaves it open to the first occupant, to me or to any body.'

We

We are very sorry that Mr. Francis has proved so true a prophet. To us, except as a public character, this gentleman is an entire stranger; and the testimony which we have borne to him has been called forth by a view of his services, and by that sympathy which the disappointment of fair expectations is well calculated to excite. Jo.

ART. VI. *The College of Fort William in Bengal.* 4to. pp. 240. 15s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1805.

THOUGH we doubt the policy of the war-system pursued in India by the Marquis Wellesley, and think that it ought to be made a subject of examination, the measure of instituting the College of Fort William only fills our minds with sentiments of respect and gratitude for the founder and patron. Rarely, indeed, has so acceptable and so splendid a service been rendered, by even princely personages, to the republic of letters; and we are persuaded that, while the Noble Lord thus laid under obligation every liberal-minded man throughout the civilized world, he not less consulted the interests of the sovereigns and the subjects of British India.—We shall indulge our readers with a portion of the information contained in this curious and interesting volume, which includes the official papers and the literary proceedings of the Institution during the first four years of its existence:—the initiatory essays of its students we formerly noticed, with the satisfaction and exultation which they had so strong a tendency to inspire *.

It is justly observed by the Marquis, when speaking of the internal government of our Eastern establishments,

'That it demands a constant, and steady, and regular supply of qualifications in no degree similar to those which distinguished the early periods of our establishment in India, and laid the foundations of our empire. The stability of that empire, whose magnitude is the accumulated result of former enterprise, activity, and resolution, must be secured by the durable principles of internal order; by a pure, upright, and uniform administration of justice; by a prudent and temperate system of revenue; by the encouragement and protection of industry, agriculture, manufacture, and commerce; by a careful and judicious management of every branch of financial resource; and by the maintenance of a just, firm and moderate policy towards the native powers of India. To maintain and support such a system in all its parts, we shall require a succession of able magistrates, wise and honest judges, and skilful statesmen, properly qualified to conduct the ordinary movements of the great machine of government.'

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* See Rev. Vol. xliii. N. S. p. 190.

The defects in the civil service of the Company are ascribed to the faulty education of its servants:

'It is obvious that an education exclusively European or Indian, would not afford an adequate remedy for such of these defects as relate to the morals and studies of the East India Company's servants, and would not qualify them for the discharge of duties of a mixed and complicated nature, involving the combined principles of Asiatic and European policy and government. Their education must therefore be of a mixed nature, its foundation must be judiciously laid in England, and the superstructure systematically completed in India.'

In order to remedy these inconveniencies, which were universally felt and acknowleged, the Marquis instituted the College of Fort William; which, as we most deeply regret, is not suffered to continue on the original plan of its able and enlightened founder, and to remain an eternal monument of the wisdom, the love of justice, the benignant spirit, the munificence, and the regard for letters, which had actuated the governors of India. At the very first public examination of the students, when the College had subsisted only one year, the acting visitor thus expresses himself:

'Those who are yet but imperfectly acquainted with the nature and objects of this institution, will learn with equal surprise and satisfaction, that students recently arrived in India, have this day ably maintained a public disputation in the Oriental languages.

'The establishment of the College of Fort William has already excited a general attention to Oriental languages, literature, and knowledge, which promises to be productive of the most salutary effects in the administration of every branch of the affairs of the Honourable Company in India.'

The following is an extract from a paper containing an account of the operations of the first four years of the College:

'The publication of an hundred original volumes in the Oriental languages and literature in the term of four years, is no inconsiderable proof of the flourishing state of the College of Fort William as a literary institution. It may be doubted, indeed, whether such a rapid diffusion of learning in different languages, from the same source, and in so short a time, has been ever equalled in any age or country. But we have yet greater proofs than these. These were but the secondary objects of the institution.

'The distinguished proficiency of the students in the Oriental languages is the proof we would propose of the efficiency, utility, and undoubted success of the College of Fort William. That proficiency is great perhaps beyond example. Some of the students have, at the end of their course, obtained degrees of honour in three of the Oriental languages; and have maintained public disputations in two of the languages. These instances are not particular. The instances of considerable proficiency are general. Boys in the lowest classes are better skilled in the Persian, Arabic, Hindoostanee, and Bengalee languages,

languages, than some of the Company's old servants, who have been twenty years in the country.'

We here meet with a translation of a speech delivered in Shanscreet at the Oriental disputations in 1804, by the Professor of that Language, the venerable Mr. Carey, for many years past Protestant Missionary in the North of India, which was spoken by him when acting as Moderator. Who that reads the ensuing passages in it will not sorely lament the discontinuance of so benignant an establishment!

'What a singular exhibition has been this day presented to us! In presence of the supreme Governor of India, and of its most learned and illustrious characters, Asiatic and European, an assembly is convened, in which no word of our native tongue is spoken, but public discourse is maintained on interesting subjects, in the languages of Asia. The colloquial Hindoostanee, the classic Persian, the commercial Bengalee, the learned Arabic, and the primæval Shanscrit, are spoken fluently, after having been studied grammatically, by English youth. Did ever any University in Europe, or any literary institution in any other age or country, exhibit a scene so interesting as this? And what are the circumstances of these youth? They are not students who prosecute a dead language with uncertain purpose, impelled only by natural genius or love of fame. But having been appointed to the important offices of administering the government of the country in which these languages are spoken, they apply their acquisitions immediately to useful purposes; in distributing justice to the inhabitants; in transacting the business of the state, revenual and commercial; and in maintaining official intercourse with the people, in their own tongue, and not, as hitherto, by means of an interpreter.'—

'I, now an old man, have lived for a long series of years among the Hindoos. I have been in the habit of preaching to multitudes daily, of discoursing with the Brahmins on every subject, and of superintending schools for the instruction of the Hindoo youth. Their language is nearly as familiar to me as my own. This close intercourse with the natives for so long a period, and in different parts of our empire, has afforded me opportunities of information not inferior to those which have hitherto been presented to any other person. I may say, indeed, that their manners, customs, habits, and sentiments, are as obvious to me, as if I was myself a native. And knowing them as I do, and hearing as I do, their daily observations on our government, character, and principles, I am warranted to say, (and I deem it my duty to embrace the public opportunity now afforded me of saying it,) that the institution of this College was wanting to complete the happiness of the natives under our dominion; for this institution will break down that *barrier* (our ignorance of their language) which has ever opposed the influence of our laws and principles, and has despoiled our administration of its energy and effect.'

This College had existed a few years, and had advanced in a course of success that exceeded all rational expectation, when

the Directors of the Company,—who, strange to tell! had never regarded it with a favourable eye,—transmitted a mandate which proved a fatal blow to it; viz. an order to split the institution into three, for the purpose of establishing one in each presidency. The extreme absurdity of this measure will readily strike every person, who has at all reflected on the prominent advantages of public education.

The particulars which we have heard of a College in this country, already set in motion by the Company, make us fear that the India seminaries will be altogether discontinued. Of some of the *Professors* at Hertford, it is well known how highly we think; and we shall not be understood as throwing out any imputation against them, when we give a preference to an institution in India, over that in which they are concerned. It is to the *locality* that we object. *India* should be the scene in which the languages of the natives should be studied. Where will their breasts be so much fired with emulation to excell in the studies in which they are engaged, as when the great objects to which they are directed are within their view? Can they be introduced too early into the scenes of the dialects of which it is so important that they should become masters, in which they are to act as revenue officers, magistrates, administrators of government, and public ministers? We lament that we cannot farther manifest our unavailing regret:—but can no mode be found to rescue this beneficent institution from its impending fate? Is not this an object worthy of engaging the attention of the Imperial government? Do not the glory and interests of the empire, the happiness of the natives, and the solicitude of the republic of letters, invoke the members of an enlightened and liberal administration to interfere in favour of so admirable an establishment,—to save it from dissolution,—and to restore it to its original state, when it embraced the education of the youth of the three presidencies?

We have regarded it as our duty to express ourselves strongly on the grounds which we perceive for instituting an inquiry into the political measures of Lord Wellesley as Governor-General of India: but whether the proceedings in question do or do not substantiate a charge against him, no persons can admit more readily than we do, that the ability with which they were planned and conducted is as conspicuous as the success with which they were crowned. Truly glad shall we be, if, while impartial justice is satisfied, the noble founder of the College of Fort William is acquitted.

Jo.

ART.

ART. VII. *The Principles of Moral Science.* By Robert Forsyth, Esq., Advocate. Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 530. 9s. Boards. Edinburgh, Bell and Co.; London, Longman and Co. 1805.

IT is painful to remark that the investigation of moral science has never been prosecuted with a degree of success commensurate to its universal and paramount importance; and that, while other departments of knowlege have been enlarged and reduced to stable principles, we still dispute concerning the nature of virtue and the means of its attainment. The author of the work which we have now announced has not, in our opinion, thrown any additional light on the speculations of his predecessors. He always argues, indeed, with perspicuity, often with force, and sometimes with acuteness; yet we have seldom met with more crude and unphilosophical views, propounded with such dispassionate seriousness, and with such apparent disregard of established sentiments.

I. Mr. Forsyth intitles the first part of his work *general principles*, though on what grounds we are utterly at a loss to determine; since it treats of the ultimate object of human pursuit, of the qualities which constitute moral perfection, of former systems of morality, and of the division of moral duties.—Before he enters on the consideration of the first of these particulars, he is careful to inform us that the science of morals 'is not occupied in the investigation of what is, or of what actually exists in the world; but in the discovery of what ought to be, or of what ought to exist.' One of the principal objects of ethical inquiry is, no doubt, to determine in what the perfection of human conduct consists, or, in other words, what human conduct ought to be:—but this inquiry necessarily suggests another, namely, what it *is*; since it is only from what we see and know of character in its existing diversities, and from our acquaintance with our own moral constitution, that we can reason consistently with respect to the propriety and probable results of our words and actions. The study of morals, then, is not limited to the question, what ought man to be? but unavoidably implies the consideration of what he is.—The author more accurately developes his subject, when he divides it into the two following questions: 'First, what ought we to regard as the most important object of human pursuit, or as the business of man in this world? And, secondly, By what means is that object to be attained? or how is our great business in life to be best fulfilled?'

With more boldness than good fortune, Mr. Forsyth endeavours to prove, 'that the great object which the human race ought to pursue, and the attainment of which they ought to regard as the

the business of their lives, is not to produce happiness, pleasure, or felicity, in themselves or others; but that, on the contrary, the end for which they were formed, and which alone they can pursue with success, is the improvement of their whole intellectual faculties, whether speculative or active. In one word,' continues he, 'it is the business of man in this world to endeavour to become an excellent being, possessing high powers of energy and intelligence. This is his chief good; and ought to be the great and ultimate object of his pursuit, to which every other consideration ought to be sacrificed.' This favourite dogma, which pervades the whole performance, is not here stated with the requisite precision. The *active intellectual faculties* is an expression which is at least ambiguous, and would seem to include both our intellectual and active powers; in which case, the writer's boasted discovery amounts only to an unauthorized extension of the term intellect. The epithet *excellent*, too, when given to man, implies a greater degree of moral goodness, and consequently of happiness, than falls to the lot of most of his fellows. In other passages, however, the author's language admits of no doubtful interpretation; and he plainly contends that intellectual improvement, and not happiness, is the great end to which all our exertions should be directed. The objections to this doctrine are many and formidable. Its tendencies are, obviously, to limit moral excellence to men of speculation and learning; whereas the majority of the species are destined for active and bustling scenes, and yet are not to be reported unsusceptible of moral habits. We may likewise remark that, although perfect felicity be incompatible with the condition of imperfect beings, the attainment of perfect intellect is equally beyond their reach; that such a portion of happiness, as is consistent with their nature, is the most laudable pursuit in which they can be engaged; and that, though the improvement of the understanding be attended with genuine gratification and with signal advantages, these are not to be put in competition with the not less pure and the much more exalted pleasures which flow from the exercise of the social and benevolent affections. The bountiful Author of our existence is no niggard of real blessings. Talents, genius, and scientific leisure may be the portion of a few: but, as light and air in the *physical* world are distributed with an unsparing hand, so in the *moral* the delights of self-approbation, and the endearments of friendship and of love, have been felt and enjoyed in every country, in every age, by the learned and the unlearned, by the prince and the mechanic. No individual can command the gifts of fortune: but all carry within themselves the sources of that peace of mind, of which neither

neither fortune nor the world can deprive them. If, from weakness or pride, we reject the boon, and allow ourselves to wander in the paths of ambition, or listen to the invitation of vicious pleasures, we have no reason to repine because anxiety, and disappointment, and vexation of spirit, should be our reward.

By confounding happiness with selfish gratifications, and the trials of the virtuous with the miseries of life, Mr. F. thus pleads in behalf of his paradoxical tenets: 'We are so far from valuing men in proportion to the pleasures and the degrees of delight that have been enjoyed by them, that we never esteem their characters so highly, as when we know that they have passed a life of toil and anxiety, have encountered pain and danger without reluctance, and have treated existence itself, and all its enjoyments with contempt.' Still the pleasures and delights, which center in the individual, are of a very inferior description to those which embrace in their range the feelings and the interests of society, which are animated and exalted by love and gratitude to the benevolent Father of the universe. By some rare combination of circumstances, the votary of selfish pleasure may pass his days without experiencing much bodily pain, or poverty, or sorrow: but he cannot be reckoned happy, at least in comparison with him who places his supreme good in the steady and honourable discharge of the various duties attached to his condition. No wonder, then, that they who prosecute happiness on the most contracted scale, or (to speak more correctly) on an erroneous view of the subject, should stand less high in the estimation of the wise, than they who uniformly study to derive it from the sources of truth and nature.—We have said that human happiness is not unmixed; and we all know that calamity may visit the dwelling of the good: but we also know that virtue is certainly not more exposed to evil than vice, that it can much better resist its pressure, and that chosen spirits are often formed and trained in the school of adversity. Besides, it is not on account of pain or misfortune that we admire those who are afflicted, but on account of the fortitude or resignation with which they are endured.

In another part of his performance, the author maintains that 'good health and a natural cheerfulness of temper produce as high a degree of happiness as we are capable of enjoying for any length of time.' Will he, then, deny that the pleasures which proceed from the exercise of kindness, charity, and all the better principles of our nature, are more pure and elevated than the agreeable sensations of health, or constitutional good humour; that we can recall them with unalloyed satisfaction

satisfaction in the hour of sickness, and gladden with their remembrance the period of our dissolution?—He then proceeds to state that there is a certain limited portion of pleasure assigned to us by the Creator of our nature, but which cannot be augmented by our own efforts. If this be true, the pleasing emotions which accompany regular and honest occupation, and the consciousness of having acted well, can be held in no estimation. We mean not to insinuate that these refined gratifications are not also provided by the Author of our existence: but he has certainly connected them, and for the wisest purposes, with our own exertions. In this sense, likewise, the gradual acquisition of intellectual excellence, which, according to Mr. Forsyth, constitutes the supreme good of man, is as much the gift of our Creator as good health, or involuntary cheerfulness.

'On considering this world attentively,' continues this intrepid reasoner, 'it does not appear to me, that its Contriver and Author ever intended, that we should enjoy happiness in it.'—Has the writer's allowance of real blessings been so scanty, or are his perceptions so obtuse, as to warrant this ungenerous, we had almost said this irreverent conclusion? More eloquent declaimers had already descanted on the physical and moral ills which shade the gay prospects of our existence. The present author alleges that they may all be reconciled with our notions of a world destined for the intellectual instruction of its most distinguished inhabitants, though by no means for their felicity. In so far, however, as felicity depends on mental energy, he must allow that they contribute to the promotion of the former. Yet it is of more consequence to remark that the sum of pleasure exceeds that of pain, that many of our diseases and distresses are the fruits of our own wayward conduct, and that imperfection is the result of our created condition. Should it be asked, why was not man formed more perfect?—we can only reply, that we are utterly incompetent to scan the designs of Omnipotence, and that we feel the force as well as the beauty of the well-known lines,

> "Go, wiser thou! and, in thy scale of sense,
> Weigh thy opinion against Providence;
> Call imperfection what thou fancy'st such,
> Say, here he gives too little, there too much," &c.

Mr. Forsyth next reduces the qualities which constitute moral perfection to a capacity of thinking clearly and of acting with vigour. Here, again, action is confounded with intellect, though it is afterward hinted that Wisdom may be considered as comprizing the whole. In the language of Scripture, it surely

may;

may; for in the sacred books it is often used as synonymous with upright conduct: but it is a perversion of all language to say that intellectual and moral worth are the same. We will readily concede to the author that the man of a cultivated understanding may widen the sphere of his enjoyments, and be enabled to direct his efforts to the attainment of true and lasting pleasures: but the history of the species, and our acquaintance with individual characters, afford us no conviction that the possessors of talents and of extensive information are invariably the most generous and honourable in their proceedings, or the most anxious to seek for happiness where alone it can be found.

The sketch of former moral systems, with which we are here presented, is extremely meagre and defective:—but we must now pass, with all promptitude, to the second part of this singular treatise, which is allotted to the consideration of private duties, or such as chiefly respect the individual.

II. Under this division, we did not expect to meet with something like a system of pneumatology, or grave inquiries into the nature of the understanding and its subordinate faculties, imagination, language, the intellectual faculties of the inferior animals, taste, the causes of error in science, the relative importance of the different sciences, intellectual fatigue and amusement, and the relative advantages of a speculative and active life. The other objects of discussion are the appetites and passions, the benevolent and malevolent affections, avarice, self-love, ambition, emulation, pride, curiosity, *a passion for reforming the world*, the accessory passions, habit, and a review of the value of the passions.

Having already occupied so much room with an examination of Mr. Forsyth's fundamental doctrines, we cannot pretend to follow him in detail through his winding and often unsatisfactory exposition of intellectual metaphysics. A due regard to cleanliness, diet, exercise, health, self-examination, &c. enter into our notions of those duties which chiefly affect the individual, since they materially contribute to personal comfort, equality of spirits, and the due government of life and manners:—but these were, perhaps, too vulgar topics to merit the attention of a writer who has discovered that his predecessors have been all in the wrong.

In his rage for simplification, Mr. Forsyth reduces the faculties of the mind to sensation, memory, and understanding. The two former, moreover, he considers as mere organs of the latter, which is alone to be regarded as mind; that is to say, that mind consists of mind.—As he proceeds to explain his subordinate divisions, he obviously confounds the terms

terms *senses* and *sensations.* Conception, abstraction, and judgment are wholly disregarded; and imagination, though denominated a power, and treated with a distinct chapter, forms no part of the primary division. Taste he labours to resolve into our love of intellectual design displayed in the objects of it,—an opinion in which we cannot concur: but, could it be established, we should consider the fine arts as deserving of more respectful treatment from the champion of intellectual morality, than they have experienced in the present performance.

Mr. Forsyth's censure of amusements, though somewhat austere and indiscriminate, is not destitute of truth:

'The pleasure derived from activity is so great, and in the north of Europe, at least, the energy of the human character is such, that absolute idleness, or a suspension of voluntary exertion without sleep, speedily produces much uneasiness. Accordingly, to get quit of this state, and to enjoy a portion of the pleasure derived from activity, many persons, who are not under the necessity of earning a subsistence by constant employment, have devised what are called *amusements*, wherewith to occupy themselves. These amusements are generally at best absolutely useless, and unimproving occupations. They are attempted to be justified as a relief from the fatigue which results from steady attention to any particular important object. In truth, however, they are in general nothing more than a set of ingenious and pleasant contrivances to enable individuals to pass through life with as little benefit as possible either to themselves or others; or they are devices whereby men contrive to defeat the views of Nature, by occupying themselves, and exhausting their powers and time in a frivolous, instead of a rational manner.

'The exertion of attention, or of a considerable effort of activity and skill, is as necessary to render amusements pleasing, as it is to the improvement of our intellectual powers. But if the human mind must be occupied, its employment ought surely to be rational rather than frivolous; the more especially as the one is not less consistent with pleasure than the other. Amusements, that is to say occupations intended for no valuable purpose, are seldom sought after, and are never found necessary by those who seriously wish to make progress in intellectual improvement, or even by those who are under the influence of any powerful or steady passion. Such men have no occassion for them, as their minds are already sufficiently occupied, and they feel nothing of the uneasiness that attends absolute idleness. Every amusement, therefore, or whatever has nothing further for its object than to prevent the necessity of thinking, and to render idleness agreeable, may justly be regarded as a contrivance hostile to the end of our existence. It wastes in fruitless trifling the time allotted in this world for the amelioration of our nature; and it has not even the excuse of affording an adequate return of pleasure in exchange. The activity of amusement is no doubt pleasing; but the activity of business is more pleasing upon the whole, as it is more permanent and more vigorous. Hence it is well known that men of business

are

are happier than men who have no employment, excepting that of seeking after amusement.'

The practice of engaging in games of hazard is asserted to be 'in all cases a vicious perversion of the human faculties and exertions. The excuse that is usually made for it is altogether absurd, that we know not how to employ ourselves otherwise in company. What business have a set of persons to come together who have nothing to say to one another? Or why should they remain together, after all they have to say is exhausted, and when they are no longer capable of entertaining each other with instructive conversation? If *men* and *women* will not be virtuous, let them at least be innocent.'—When discoursing of the appetites, he condemns the pleasures of the table in a strain of illustration that is somewhat novel. 'In this view, (he says) men of letters are exposed to considerable hazard. In the present age, in consequence of the riches that have flowed from so many quarters into our country, and in consequence of the growing fondness for a city residence, the evil is understood to prevail to a dangerous extent. It is even said, that by far the greater part of what are called *nervous distempers*, which are now so extremely prevalent among persons in easy circumstances, are the result of indolence, added to habitual indulgence in the pleasures last mentioned. It is also said to be in some measure owing to this vice, that a smaller proportion than formerly of the English dignified clergy, and others holding conspicuous stations in the Universities or elsewhere, now possess a distinguished literary reputation.'

Several defective definitions occur in the author's exposition of the benevolent and malevolent affections; and his institution of a new passion, namely that *for reforming the world*, which is manifested only at long intervals of time, and has therefore escaped the notice of preceding moralists, is truly ludicrous:—but our limits scarcely allow us to advert to the third great division, or those duties which principally respect the Deity.

III. In point of arrangement merely, we should have preferred the more natural gradation from the individual to society, and from society to the Supreme Being. The titles of the seven chapters of this third part are, of religion in general, of the existence and character of the Deity, of the connection between the Deity and the universe, the same subject continued, duties of religion, or of which the Deity is the object, different religions compared, and of a future state of existence.—Mr. Forsyth's religious creed is by no means very liberal or consoling. While he believes in the existence of a Deity, he virtually denies his benevolence; while he maintains

tains the non-existence of moral evil, he allows that men may be guilty towards each other, and consequently liable to punishment; and while he argues against a future state of rewards and punishments, he confers immortality on the elect few who have cultivated their intellectual powers in this world, but very charitably consigns the multitude to inevitable annihilation. To state is to expose the inconsistency and the danger of such tenets. It is but justice, however, to add that the author is a warm admirer of Christianity in its native purity and simplicity.

'The religion of Europe, (he observes) during many centuries, was encumbered with ceremonies, pilgrimages, and idolatry. Magnificent temples, attended by a numerous priesthood, together with splendid processions and costly musical establishments, contributed to render Christianity a religion apparently intended to affect merely the imaginations of men, and, as far as possible, to restrain the activity of the human understanding. The Christians were no less intolerant than the Mahometans, while their idolatry was almost as gross as that of the Gentoos. By means of a visible head, also, who laid claim to infallible inspiration, every speculative novelty, that is, every improvement in science, was repressed.

'Even in its worst state, however, Christianity had great advantages. It not only did not divide mankind into hereditary casts, but it rejected the law of polygamy; and its sacred books regulated religious subjects merely, and imposed no fetters upon the activity of the human mind. The nations of Europe, therefore, having avoided the calamities which the law of polygamy produces in Asia, advanced to a certain degree of improvement; and the sacred books of their religion having been promulgated to the people at large, the whole fabric of Popish superstition was overturned in one-half of Europe, and reformed or undermined in a great part of the rest. In these books, men found a religion which possessed all the advantages of prohibiting idolatry, of imposing scarcely any external ceremonies, of forbidding persecution, of avoiding all interference with the government of the state, or with the ordinary affairs of life, of establishing domestic society upon the best possible footing; and which contented itself with inculcating the unity of the Divine Nature, with teaching a pure morality, and with holding out to the hopes of men a state of future existence.—The nations of Europe are not sufficiently aware how much of their prosperity, their arts, civilization, and superiority of character, they owe to this simple religion, which gives so much aid to the progressive improvement of the human mind, and removes all the obstructions to intellectual excellence, which superstition has created in the less fortunate regions of the East.'

The style of this work is deficient in polish, but it is perspicuous, condensed, and forcible. The author never seems to be warmed with the dignity or the interest of his subject, but delivers his sentiments with the most cheerless indifference. In one word, his book wants a *heart*.

ART. VIII. *Fables:* Vol. II. containing Cambuscan, an heroic Poem, in Six Books: founded upon and comprizing a free Imitation of Chaucer's Fragment on that Subject. By Richard Wharton, Esq. 8vo. pp. 215. 5s. Boards. Payne and Mackinlay. 1805.

WE briefly characterized the first portion of these Fables in the 45th volume of our New Series, p. 412. In his preface to this bolder attempt, Mr. Wharton mentions circumstances which are at least sufficiently probable for his purposes, and which explain his reasons for identifying his hero with Touschi Khan, the elder son of the famous Ginghis, and Cambal with Khan Batu, Touschi's son. With some degree of plausibility, and with evident convenience, he changes *Sorie* of the black-letter edition of Chaucer into *Russie*; and he denominates the Government from which the rider of the Brazen Horse was deputed, the *kingdom of Ophir*, 'supposing it to have extended its dominion over the southern parts of Arabia, and the peninsula of India, and *as many of the Indian islands as the reader may be pleased to throw in*, to form a power great enough to combat that of the Tartarian empire.' As the subjects of Cambuscan are supposed to be followers of the Tibetian doctrine, and the Ophirians to be Mohammedans, his machinery is, moreover, reconcileable with the common tenets of both the parties.

'If it be objected to me, (continues the author,) that, grounding what I have added to Chaucer's Fragment on history, I have nevertheless deviated from the truth of history, as well as the accuracy of chronology, in many instances: I reply that it is far from my wish that the *facts* of my story should be credited. I am not vain enough even to suppose that my readers will derive any solid advantage from those parts of the poem which contain reflections: I have aimed, however weakly, to please; and to please only.'

It would indeed have been distressing, if, after having used all this freedom with History and Geography, and after such an humble avowal of his object, Mr. Wharton had entirely failed. The conduct of his Fable certainly discovers both judgment and fancy, and his narrative is occasionally glowing and animated: but we still think that he would have interested a greater number of readers, if he had either exercised his talents on an original subject, or had imbibed with less reserve the manner and spirit of his prototype. We shall, however, note some of the principal incidents, and adduce a few specimens of the performance.

Cambuscan, a valiant and very exemplary Prince, had by his consort Elfeta two sons, Algarsife and Cambal, and one daughter, the fair and accomplished Canace. As the king sat

in his hall, presiding at his birth-day festival, Acban, a stranger Knight, advanced to do him homage, mounted on a brazen horse of surpassing mechanism; which, with an enchanted mirror, a gold ring, and a sabre, he affected to offer as presents from Aulum, king of Ophir, in whose name, and with many fair and specious words, he solicited friendship and alliance. Aulum, however, had dispatched him on a very different mission, namely, to require tribute, and provoke hostilities. While entertained with much kindness at the Court of Cambuscan, Acban meditates other dark and deceitful plans, aided and instigated by the suggestions of Dyr Zoro, a wicked enchanter; whose machinations are fortunately counteracted by the occasional interposition of Maimoune, a friendly and virtuous Genie. This useful personage inspires Canace and Alkabal, son to Aulum, with a mutual flame, in visions of the night, and transforms Zelica, whom the thoughtless Cambal had ungenerously forsaken, into a snow-white Falcon. This beautiful and disconsolate bird relates the story of her faithless Tercelet, and induces the compassionate Canace to give her a soothing reception in the palace. Acban, meanwhile, goaded by cursed ambition, meditates the usurpation of thrones, the seduction of Canace, and other wicked designs; while Aulum, disregarding his son's remonstrances, prepares to invade the territories of the Tartar king.

Before he quits the court of Cambuscan, Acban ostensibly undertakes to instruct him in the management of the supernatural horse, but very artfully tempts him to make a premature trial of his skill, and so to mount aloft in the air, without the ability of returning to the earth. His queen, his sons, his daughter, and his subjects, deplore such fatal precipitancy, especially at a season when the approach of a formidable enemy is announced, and the proceedings of the stranger Knight had begun to excite suspicion. The plot now glows and thickens. Algarsife and Cambal lead their Tartars against the Ophirians; a dreadful battle ensues; and while victory seems ready to declare in favour of the heroic brothers, the fate of the day is suspended by the defection of those whose loyalty Acban had previously seduced, and especially of Wolodomir, a subjected Russian prince, and father to Theodora, who had obtained and merited the affections of Algarsife. The latter urges his bloody career in the direction of the retiring Russians, that he may guard the object of his love, and bid the slaughter spare her father. In this crisis, Canace, who had been betrayed into Acban's power, but who had been awakened to a sense of her danger by the appearance of Maimoune, slyly obtains an hour's respite from compliance with the proferred nuptials; and, availing herself

of

of the secret accidentally imparted by him who sought her ruin, she entreats the Falcon to find her father in the regions of air, and to pounce on the horse's eye-lid. All this is speedily performed; Cambuscan descends with joy, first gives thanks for his deliverance in the tomb of Ginghis-kan, then shapes his course to the field of battle, and, after much hard fighting, kills Aulum and Acban, and enjoys his triumph with generosity and moderation. Cambal and Alkabal, who had fallen in single combat and were left on the ground almost lifeless, are restored by the virtue of Canace's ring; Wolodomir is forgiven, and reinstated in his dominions; his daughter is wedded to Algarsife, Canace to the young king of Ophir, and Cambal, bewailing the errors of his youth, returns with transport to virtue and to Zelica. Finally, Cambuscan puts the horse, the ring, the mirror, and the sabre, beyond the reach of his posterity for ever.—

In this tale, notwithstanding the extravagance of its fictions, the events are introduced with considerable address, and the leading characters are sustained with due regard to their appropriate qualities. The narrative, however, is at times rather feebly prolonged; and seldom is it marked by ease and gracefulness. If general defects could be redeemed by particular beauties, we might quote various passages of unquestioned merit: but, in our extracts, we must consult brevity not less than excellence.

Maimoune's influence on Canace's dreams is thus fancifully portrayed:

> 'Buoyant, above her head Maimoune hung;
> And from her wings in quick succession flung
> Of thoughts and forms a visionary stream,
> That fill'd her fancy with a sprightly dream.
> The Pomp, the Feast, the Dance of yesternight,
> And all the wonders of the Stranger Knight,
> With shapes grotesque and wand'ring thoughts combin'd
> Danc'd o'er the wavering surface of her mind:
> But, as the indistincter notions fled,
> A train of order'd thoughts Maimoune led,
> And each upon her mind a deep impression made.
> On all the gifts she dwelt; but last and most
> On the strange Glass, of magic art the boast.
> This Mirror in her grasp she seem'd to hold,
> Gazing, as ev'ry wooer's features told
> His secret wish; for o'er the narrow space
> In turn each Suitor pass'd, and to the next gave place.
> Nor those alone whose love before she knew,
> But unknown features pass'd in strict review,
> Each with a several passion ting'd, and each
> As plain confess'd as by extorted speech.

Among the rest the Stranger Knight arose:
But flame was in his eye: his furrow'd brows
With the black scowl of horror were o'erspred;
And all his robe was dy'd a bloody red.
She started at the sight—recov'ring *soon*
She look'd again—the Stranger Knight was *gone*—
And in his place a beauteous form was seen,
A youth in semblance, godlike in his mien,
With all the grace that deck'd the Stranger Knight,
But beaming from his eyes a milder light.'

Canace's apparent compliance with Acban's wishes is not very happily expressed:

'The Princess spoke—"Thy planet rules the hour:
Resistance boots not, unsupplied with pow'r—
Yet let not eager haste, Sir Knight, disgrace
A Princess, not the meanest of her race:
Let honourable robes my limbs invest;
Let solemn rites our nuptial vows attest;
And Elfeta (her lord for ever gone)
A daughter's marriage bless, and save a son.
Thou, while to Sarra speeds my hasty *step*,
From fresh assault the savage forces *keep*;
But from the ears of rumour careful hide
That Canace prepares to be thy bride.—
Here stay—one little hour is all I crave:
Then wed me like a Princess—not a slave."

In the whole performance, perhaps, we have not met with a more pleasing passage than the following:

'The lovely flow'ret, which a driving *blast*
Has sown by chance in some sequester'd *waste*,
Gay to the eye, and to the nostril sweet,
Unfolds its charms, where none those charms can meet:
Yet may those beauties never bloom in vain;
For Heav'n that gave them, and heav'n's holy train,
Will nurse them with the best of morning's dew,
Augment their fragrance, and refresh their hue.
Thus, though in Ophir's court Al-Kabal's breast
On no congenial qualities could rest,
Nor cull from all the youths the realm might lend
One whom his heart could cling to as a friend;
Yet were his opening virtues seen above;
And all good Spirits blest him with their love.'

Lines much less musical and less poetical too often occur;

'By this the medicinal power is known.'—
'These modes of action to our choice are free,
'Tis mine to weigh the counsel given by *ye*;
Then ponder, if ye doubt, upon the three.'—
'But as the *indistincter* notions fled.'—
'Through the still uniformity of space,' &c.

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It is with regret that we have again to notice the extreme carelessness of the author's rhymes. Thus we find *distill'd* and *yield*, *years* and *stars*, *clear* and *war*, *ill* and *feel*, *ordain'd* and *stand*, *spoke* and *took*, *rim* and *gleam*, *bear* and *war*, *steal* and *prevail*, *spear* and *bear*, *ran* and *train*, *care* and *rear*, *room* and *hum*, *led* and *steed*, *bid* and *steed*, *spoke* and *look*, *land* and *reign'd*, *man* and *train*, *rack* and *take*, *steed* and *bled*, &c.

Mr. Wharton is likewise too fond of triplets and Alexandrines; and we are the more solicitous to point out these minor blemishes, because we perceive in his writings the stamina of good poetry.

Muir.

ART. IX. *An Essay on Chemical Statics*; with copious explanatory Notes, and an Appendix on Vegetable and Animal Substances. Faithfully translated from the original French of C. L. Berthollet, Member of the Conservative Senate, of the Institute, &c. By B. Lambert. 8vo. 2 Vols. 16s. Boards. Mawman.

AFTER so much has been written on the subject of chemistry, it may appear singular for us to be asking what chemistry is, or in what essential particulars chemical operations differ from other physical effects: yet the present work may be considered as bearing on this point, since its principal design is to shew that we have mistaken what has been generally regarded as the distinguishing characteristic of the science, viz. the doctrine of elective attractions. The great Newton was the first who seemed to possess any correct notions of this matter; he supposed that chemical phænomena depended on the attraction of particles of matter for each other, and that different kinds of matter exhibited different degrees of attraction. These ideas of Newton were, however, rather thrown out as hints, than adopted as the basis of a train of reasoning; and it is to Bergman that we owe that development which has been usually considered as the most accurate view of the subject, and in which all succeeding writers have acquiesced. That illustrious chemist, in his dissertation on elective attraction, lays down the position that the force, which different particles of the same kind of matter exercise on each other, is a constant quantity, and is invariably the same under all circumstances except those of temperature. M. Berthollet attempts to controvert this fundamental law of chemistry; and a main object of the present Essay is to prove that chemical attraction, like the attraction of gravitation, is influenced by the mass or quantity of the attracting body. Proceeding on the assumption of this position, we were not surprized to observe that the au-

thor considers the attraction which subsists between the molecules of bodies, or chemical attraction, to be the same property with what he calls astronomical attraction; because one of the principal differences, which had been noticed between their modes of operation, is here attempted to be set aside. 'The powers (he remarks) which produce chemical phænomena are all derived from the mutual attraction of the moleculæ of bodies, to which the name of affinity is given, to distinguish it from astronomical attraction. It is probable that they are the same property.'

It may at first appear that the principle which this publication is intended to establish,—viz. that elective affinity is not a determinate force which in all cases acts with the same energy, but that it is influenced by the quantity of the body in action, so that a weaker affinity may be compensated by a greater quantity,—involves a question which might easily be brought to the test of experiment. This indeed is the plan which the author adopts; he employs a salt composed of two substances, and he adds a third, which is supposed to have a weaker affinity for either of the components than they have for each other; yet, by adding it in a sufficiently large quantity, he is able to effect a partial decomposition of the first salt. In this way, he decomposes both oxalat of lime and sulphat of barytes by a fixed alkali; saline compounds which had usually been considered as affording instances of the most powerful elective affinities.

Admitting, then, the view of the subject proposed by the author, it will naturally be asked, how are we to account for the changes which take place among chemical substances, and which have usually been attributed to elective affinity, if we suppose that these operations have nothing specific in their nature?—why does it happen that, when we add barytes to any salt containing sulphuric acid, the sulphat of barytes is immediately produced, and the former compound is destroyed? This phænomenon, according to M. Berthollet, does not depend on any superior affinity to sulphuric acid which barytes possesses, but on the property of these two bodies, when in union, of becoming solid, and therefore being rendered visible to the eye. When muriat of barytes and sulphat of soda are added together in solution, we are to consider the water as containing the four components in a separate state; and, as it is an inherent property of the compound of sulphuric acid and barytes to be insoluble in water, so when the particles of these two substances unite, the insoluble salt is formed, and a precipitate appears which has usually (but improperly) been ascribed to the superior affinity of the component parts for each other. Thus

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it follows that the effects, which have hitherto been considered as those of affinity, are in fact those of insolubility only; so that the tables of elective attractions will be reduced to nothing more than tables of successive precipitations.

To this statement, which, we believe, exhibits a correct view of M. Berthollet's argument, we must offer three objections. In the first place, we may remark that the experiments, which he has brought forwards in support of his hypothesis, rest solely on his own authority; and if they be not in direct opposition to those of his predecessors, they are at least so far different from them as to require the most ample confirmation. We feel the highest respect for his character and talents: but, when operations of so much delicacy are concerned, we may be permitted to express some degree of hesitation in admitting his results.—2dly, Granting the accuracy of the experiments in the fullest extent, they only prove that a *partial* decomposition can be effected in those cases in which a supposed stronger affinity is counteracted by one that is weaker. Thus, in the case mentioned above, by boiling sulphat of barytes in pot-ash, sulphat of pot-ash is formed; and in course sulphat of barytes is decomposed: but it does not appear that, in any experiment, the whole of the sulphat of barytes was decomposed, nor that it could be done, whatever quantity of pot-ash were employed. Now we have it in our power to account for the *partial* decomposition of a salt by one possessing a weaker affinity, without deviating from the hypothesis of Bergman; indeed, it may be done in strict conformity with a principle which he has himself pointed out. He observes that, in many instances, a compound acts by its new properties on one of the components, and unites to a portion of it, forming a secondary compound; and since this generally possesses a weaker affinity than that which subsists between the elements of the primary compound, many substances are able to separate this additional quantity of acid or alkali, which could have no effect on the parts that composed the primary salt. Hence we deem ourselves warranted in concluding that, before M. Berthollet's hypothesis can be established, it will be absolutely necessary that he should have decomposed, not a part only, but the whole of the salt in question, by one which is supposed to have a weaker affinity.—The 3d remark which we would offer relates to the author's ideas respecting precipitation; which he considers, not as any proof of the action of an elective affinity, but merely as the effect of insolubility. That it is the insoluble nature of the precipitate which causes it to separate from the water, and renders it visible to the eye, is undoubted: but we are surely not to suppose this insolubility to be the cause of the decomposition. To

refer to the example already adduced; when sulphuric acid is added to the muriat of barytes, an insoluble precipitate (the sulphat of barytes) is produced; are we to suppose that the sulphuric acid and the barytes unite together, because, when so united, they form an insoluble salt? Surely a superior affinity must have acted, and displaced the muriatic acid; although, unless it had happened that the new compound had been insoluble, no precipitate would have been formed.

We have before noticed that M. Berthollet does not admit of there being any specific quality in the affinity which produces chemical compositions. Besides the introductory sentence quoted above, we may adduce the following, in confirmation of our opinion:

'The effects of cohesion and affinity are not to be attributed, in conformity to the opinion of some philosophers, to two affinities, one of which they have considered as chemical, and the other as derived from the laws of physics.'—

'Under the name of *affinity of aggregation*, some chemists have distinguished the effects of the force of cohesion, from those of the affinity of composition; but they have only admitted it between the molecules of the same species, and they have opposed it to the *affinity of composition*, although the force of cohesion may be often one of the causes which produces combinations, and which consequently then becomes that which they call *affinity of composition*.'—

'It is obvious that the distinction attempted to be established by some philosophers between chemical affinity and physical adhesion is without foundation; for the effects which they attribute to the latter, depend on the same cause as those which are owing to affinity, and are only different in the energy of the reciprocal action compared with the resistance opposed to it.'

Other similar passages might be extracted. Notwithstanding, however, that this doctrine appears to be laid down with so much precision, it appears to us that many parts of the work are in direct opposition to it. The instances are very numerous in which the author refers to the action of chemical affinity as producing effects of a specific nature, different or even opposite to those which could be supposed to depend on simple attraction. He even considers it as the great agent in counteracting attraction; for, after having informed us that cohesion is the immediate effect of the reciprocal affinity of the particles of bodies, he states chemical affinity to be a power of a contrary kind, and the principal means of effecting the opposite condition, viz. solution.

After these remarks on M. Berthollet's general principles, we shall notice the arrangement which he has pursued in his work. The essay is divided into two parts; in the first, he considers 'the elements of chemical action, and in the second, the substances

stances which exercise it, and which contribute the most to chemical phænomena, classing them according to their habitudes, or the relations existing between their affinities.' The first part is divided into six sections, in which the following subjects are discussed:—the chemical action of solids and liquids, acidity and alkalinity, caloric, the effect of expansion and condensation in elastic fluids, the limits of combination, and the action of the atmosphere. In the 2d part, consisting of five sections, he treats of oxigenable substances, of binary acids considered with respect to their composition, of ternary acids, of alkalis and earths, and of metallic substances. To attempt to follow him through all the subjects which compose these volumes, or to enter on the discussion of all the important doctrines which he submits to our consideration, would lead us to almost as great a length as that of the essay itself. On the various points which successively pass under his review, M. Berthollet displays that profound and penetrating judgment, and that intimate acquaintance with the most minute details of his science, which have contributed to raise him to the first rank among chemical philosophers. With respect to the principle which it is the grand object of the treatise to establish, that chemical operations are influenced by the mass or the quantity of the ingredients, we think that there can be no doubt of its existence; it had been already noticed in some instances, and the present discussion tends to generalize it:—but, although we admit the facts, we are inclined to differ from the able author in his method of accounting for them; we do not conceive that they by any means disprove the usually adopted opinions on the subject of elective affinity; and how much soever they may be modified, still we believe that it will be found impossible not to take them into account in the explanation of chemical phænomena.

With respect to the style and manner of M. Berthollet's performance, we are obliged to express some disapprobation; the subjects on which he treats are in themselves difficult, but they are rendered unnecessarily obscure by the perplexity of his sentences, and the inverted turn of his expressions. Unfortunately, the English translator has added to the evil, and has in some places even misrepresented the sense of the original. We shall quote a few instances, which may serve as a specimen of the rest:—"*l'affinité ne differe pas dans son origine de l'attraction generale*" is translated, 'affinity differs only in its origin from the general attraction;'—"*qu'il* (Bergman) *porta à un degré*,"—'which brought it to a degree:'—these occur in the introduction. In the first sentence of the body of the work, for "*toute action chimique n'est pas un effet simple*

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de l'affinité," we read, 'all chemical action is only a simple effect of affinity.' Shortly afterward, "*une force opposée à la liquidité*" is translated, 'a force opposed to that of liquidity;' and in the next section, "*leurs propres particles*" is translated 'their peculiar particles.' These specimens will, we apprehend, be sufficient to prove the inaccuracy of the English version.

We shall notice one farther circumstance respecting this publication, which we particularize rather as exhibiting a view of the state of literature in France, than from any wish to deduce from it an insinuation unfavourable to the author. We were somewhat surprized to observe that M. Berthollet, when referring to the experiments or opinions of the English chemists, generally employs, not the originals, nor even a translation of them, but only an account of them given in a periodical review published at Geneva. This is done with respect to works of the first importance,—even the later volumes of the Philosophical Transactions. As we cannot doubt that M. Berthollet would use every exertion to consult such books in their more perfect state, we must conclude that the vaunted encouragement, given by the present government of France to literature and science, is more than counteracted by the benumbing influence of despotism.

Bos.

Art. X. *Medical Reports*, on the Effects of Water, cold and warm, as a Remedy in Fever and Febrile Diseases, whether applied to the Surface of the Body, or used internally. The 3d Edition, corrected and enlarged. By James Currie, M.D. F.R.S., Physician in Liverpool. 8vo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. The 4th Edition. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Cadell, &c.

With the merits of the former editions of this work, all medical men are sufficiently acquainted; the practice which it recommends is established on the firmest basis of experience; and the "Medical Reports" can no longer depend on our commendation for the rank which they must hold among the productions of British genius. Two other editions (a 3d and 4th) have successively been requisite; and they are so much enlarged, that we deem it our duty to point out the nature of the additions. The quantity of new materials furnished for the 3d edition was so considerable, as to render it necessary to form it into a separate volume, under the title of Additional Reports; it consists of the author's experience with respect to his new practice of cold affusion, since the first appearance of his book, and also the communications of his medical correspondents on the same subject. His later observations entirely

 coincide

coincide with those already before the public respecting the utility of the operation; he has even extended it with advantage to the late stages of typhus; and he appears to have used greater freedom in exposing the body to external cold.

Some interesting remarks are inserted on dysentery and scarlatina, both which diseases seem to have been particularly prevalent in Liverpool during the autumn of the year 1801. The account of scarlatina we regard as the most valuable part of the additional volume. The success of the cold affusion in combating this fatal disease was, if possible, more striking than in fever; and in the instances of young children, who are with difficulty induced to employ any internal remedies, it must be regarded as an improvement of the very first importance. Dr. Currie premises some observations on the nature of the disease; and he is decidedly of opinion that the scarlet fever and the malignant or putrid sore throat are merely varieties of the same complaint, analogous to the two states of distinct and confluent small-pox. From extensive experience during twenty years, he determines that scarlatina occurs only once to the same individual, although he acknowleges that a contrary opinion is still maintained by some respectable practitioners.—He gives an interesting account of the appearances which the disease usually assumes:

'After some previous lassitude or weariness, of uncertain duration, the Scarlatina Anginosa comes on with the usual symptoms of pyrexia —shivering, pain in the back and head, nausea, and frequently vomiting; in proportion to the violence of these symptoms, and to the rapidity of their progress, is the danger of the disease; in an hour or two the heat begins to return, and speedily mounts up far beyond the temperature of health, this return of heat being generally attended by a great sensibility and bright-red flushing over the whole surface of the body, with some stiffness of the neck, hoarseness of the voice, and rawness of the throat.'

The temperature of the body appears to be the highest on which thermometrical observations have hitherto been made; Dr. C. has noticed it as great as 112°. For all this alarming train of symptoms, even when existing in the most acute degree, the cold affusion offers a remedy of perfect safety and much efficacy. It seems indeed to render all other applications nearly superfluous, though the author agrees with Dr. Withering in considering the operation of emetics as often very beneficial. Blisters, he thinks, are positively injurious. This chapter concludes with rather a prolix letter from Dr. Gregory of Edinburgh, expressing his full confidence in the powers of the remedy.

After

After a statement of the result of his own practice, subsequent to the publication of the former edition, Dr. Currie proceeds to detail the communications which he has received from his correspondents, and first from those in different parts of Great Britain. 'In London,' he remarks, 'the practice has been more coldly received than in most other places, a circumstance, which if it were necessary, it would be easy to explain.' At length, however, an institution has been set on foot for the reception of fever patients, in which it appears that the employment of the remedy has been attended with the accustomed success. We find also testimonies to the same effect from Edinburgh, Birmingham, and Norwich: but, on the whole, these testimonies are less interesting than we expected.—The next chapter, on 'the use of the cold affusion in fevers on shipboard,' is more attractive; and, in particular, it contains a letter from Mr. Nagle, surgeon of the Ganges man of war, relating the effects of the cold affusion in a malignant fever which broke out on board that ship while on the Jamaica station, in the autumn of 1800. The symptoms were extremely violent, and indeed appear to have exhibited every mark of that fatal disease which has so severely scourged the western world.

"If you ask" says Mr. Nagle, "whether this was the yellow fever of the West Indies, I would answer that it was, though, under the practice I have described, the yellow tinge of the skin seldom appeared. By whatever name it may go, it was no doubt the same fever that spread such destruction through our naval and military service in the West Indies last war. I did not consider it as contagious. There was little chilliness perceptible in this fever—the remissions, if any, were very indistinct. The patients complained of a burning heat, almost from the first."

Next follows an account of 'the cold affusion on shore, in the warmer climates.' The documents on this head are less valuable than on the preceding; and although the process has been adopted, and with its usual good effects, in one or two instances, it appears not to have yet excited that attention among the army surgeons, and among the medical men practising in the warmer climates, which we might have anticipated. Dr. Currie offers some strictures on the publication of Dr. Jackson; who, in his employment of the cold bath, differs very materially from Dr. C. both in his practice and his theory. He then adverts to the dreadful fever which has so frequently raged in the United States of America, and expresses a degree of surprize and regret, (sentiments in which every friend of humanity must cordially participate) that a remedy, which has proved so eminently

successful

successful in similar diseases, should have never yet had a complete trial in the yellow fever.

Some remarks on cutaneous perspiration conclude the main body of the work. This function the author regards as the principal agent in regulating the temperature of the body; and he considers the increase of temperature as the most essential and important of the symptoms of fever:—hence the diminution of temperature is the principal indication in the cure of this disease; and what means are so likely to produce this effect as the application of external cold? The other remedies which have been employed, emetics, sudorifics, and blood letting, have all an indirect effect in diminishing the temperature, but in a way less safe and less efficacious.

The additions now specified are those which appear in the 3d edition; the 4th, which we believe was not published until after the much lamented death of the author, is still farther enlarged by an account of a typhus fever which broke out among the French prisoners at Stapleton, of a fever which occurred at Canterbury in a regiment of horse stationed there, and of the epidemic which raged with so much violence at Gibraltar. The fever at Stapleton is described from the personal inspection of the author; and of that at Canterbury he received the account through the medium of Mr. M'Gregor. They both afforded instances of the beneficial operation of the cold affusion.—With respect to the Gibraltar fever, it is greatly to be regretted not only that this remedy was not tried, but that so great a degree of indecision prevailed respecting the nature of the disease, that the most obvious measures of precaution were neglected until it had taken possession of the whole district. The treatment adopted by the different practitioners was so various, yet on the whole so unsuccessful, that we can gain little instruction relative to the method which should be employed in a similar occurrence. It is strange that, amid so much uncertainty, and so much mortality, no one should have thought of trying the cold bath or the cold affusion.

The author of these volumes is now no more. After having struggled for a long time with a painful and lingering disorder, he removed from Liverpool, the scene of his professional exertions, to the South of Devonshire; and there he closed a life distinguished for active exertions in the cause of humanity, and an unvaried attention to the interests of science. As a medical writer, he may claim the first rank among the moderns; and perhaps no instance can be found in any age, in which so much correct science is united to elegance and propriety of diction, as in Dr. Currie's Medical Reports.

Bos.

ART.

ART. XI. *Practical Observations on Insanity;* in which some Suggestions are offered towards an improved Mode of treating Diseases of the Mind, and some Rules proposed which it is hoped may lead to a more humane and successful Method of Cure: to which are subjoined, Remarks on Medical Jurisprudence as connected with diseased Intellect. By Joseph Mason Cox, M.D., Fish Ponds, near Bristol 8vo. 5s. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin.

As the writer of this treatise is a gentleman of respectable character and education, who has for some years kept an asylum near Bristol for the reception of insane patients, we took up his volume with the expectation of meeting with many interesting remarks on the pathology of the disease, and much valuable information respecting its cure. How far our expectations have been fulfilled, or disappointed, will be seen in the course of our review.

Dr. Cox begins by giving the 'history of a maniacal attack.' He says that the approaches of the disease are generally gradual; that it is first visible in a change of the accustomed habits, dispositions, and pursuits; that the nervous system becomes affected, and its action quickened; while at the same time, the muscular powers are increased. He likewise notices the remarkable manner in which insanity, as it were, takes possession of the whole system, to the exclusion of other diseases; so that its attacks have been known to remove complaints of a nature the most dissimilar, and seemingly in no degree dependent on the nervous system.—On this description we must observe that, like most other general definitions of insanity, it is imperfect, because it does not clearly discriminate between this disease and those states which most nearly resemble it. Is every person to be considered as mad, who gradually changes his habits and modes of thinking, whose nervous system exhibits an unusual sensibility, and whose muscular power acquires an increase of energy? What conclusion can we draw from such an account of the maniac, but that all men are intitled to this character who differ from their fellows; and those the more particularly, who possess the highest degree of mental and corporeal power?

The author next attempts to discover the causes of insanity. He adopts the usual arrangement of predisponent and exciting, and afterward divides the predisponent into connate and acquired. The connate may be confined to an hereditary taint, and the presence of certain temperaments, particularly the sanguine and the melancholic; among the acquired predisponent causes, he classes habits of abstraction, defective education, excessive venery, intoxication, and the application of heat to the bare head. The chief of the exciting causes here enumerated

merated are the passions of religion and love, when carried to excess; and some of those corporeal effects which have been already enumerated among the predisposing causes, such as intoxication.—We must acknowlege that considerable confusion appears to us to exist in this arrangement and division of the causes of insanity; which must in part perhaps be attributed to the necessary obscurity of the subject, but also in part, we fear, to a want of precision in the ideas of the author.

We shall transcribe Dr. Cox's remarks on the effect of religious enthusiasm in the production of insanity, because they coincide with our experience on the subject, and the mischief appears to be increasing in this country.

'My experience has furnished many unhappy instances, in which the misplaced injudicious zeal of Preachers has induced hypochondriasis, in others insanity of the most incurable species, and moping melancholy often terminated by suicide. Professors of this description, with the very best intentions, too frequently make no allowance for the peculiarities of natural disposition, and impute to serious conviction and celestial influence what more properly belongs to incipient disease, or the agency of certain moral and physical causes. Nothing is more calculated to depress hope and induce despondency than the indiscriminate practice of minutely describing, in the most glowing colours, the effects and consequences of sin, the horrors of hell, and the sufferings of the damned; dwelling more on the judgments than on the mercy and goodness of the Deity.'

On the proximate cause of insanity, the author is wisely very brief: but he states that, in most maniacal patients, organic injury of the brain has been discovered, and that the injury seems generally to have been the consequence of an inordinate determination of blood to the head. That this has frequently been the case, we readily admit; and we agree with Dr. Cox in considering it as a circumstance of great practical importance: but so many cases have occurred in which this increased determination of blood was not discoverable, that we cannot deem ourselves justified in regarding it either as the proximate cause of the disease, or as in fact throwing any material light on the nature of this cause. In no disease, perhaps, is the prognosis so important as in the one now under consideration; and Dr. Cox furnishes a number of observations on this point: but they are rather immethodically put together, and do not exhibit that degree of precision which constitutes the main value of such remarks. He enters at large on the diagnosis; and he criticizes the definition which Dr. Cullen gives of insanity, as being without fever, which was no doubt done in order to distinguish mania from delirium. We believe it to be nearly impossible to discriminate between delirium and mania in some cases; and in the greatest number of instances,

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Dr. Cullen is correct, since fever is a necessary concomitant of delirium, but only an occasional attendant on mania.

With regard to the cure of the disease; the treatment is arranged under the customary heads of moral and medical: the first being the point on which the judgment of the practitioner is more particularly to be exercised, and to which his exertions may be directed with the best prospect of success. It has been a matter of frequent discussion whether the particular humors of the patient, on the subjects of his hallucination, (as the author terms them,) should be combated or indulged. He seems to incline to the latter opinion; and he relates some cases which terminated favourably, in consequence, as it seems, of the whim of the patient being humored, and apparently adopted by his attendants. In a subsequent part of the work, however, he adopts a contrary opinion, and expressly states that 'such a practice is not only nugatory, but often productive of aggravation of the symptoms.' No doubt, the fact is that different cases require different modes of management in this respect; and we might have supposed that an experienced practitioner would have been able to lay down some rules by which our conduct on the subject should be directed: but we find nothing of this kind in the volume before us.

Many of Dr. Cox's readers will probably think that certain of the expedients which are related, as having been adopted for the sake of impressing the mind of the patient, will scarcely be calculated to produce any salutary effect. 'Waking the party from sleep, either suddenly or by a gradual process, by imitated thunder or soft music, according to the peculiarity of the case, combating the erroneous deranged notion, either by some pointed sentence, or signs executed in phosphorus upon the wall of the bed-chamber, or by some tale, assertion, or reasoning, by one in the character of an angel, prophet, or devil,' if they have *any* effect, we should apprehend would rather increase his insanity by exciting terror, than tend to relieve it.

Among the medical means that may be employed for the cure of mania, vomiting is mentioned by the author in terms of high commendation; and some cases are related in which the disease was entirely cured by evacuating the stomach. Digitalis he classes 'next to emetics as a remedy in madness;' and he adds that 'no case ought to be abandoned as incurable till it had been submitted to a trial of this very powerful medicine, and its employment had been persisted in till some effects were obvious.' We are informed that it is most successful when an accelerated circulation has been produced, without any other of the symptoms of pyrexia.—Camphor he considers as a dubious remedy; and opium, in his hands, has seldom been productive of much

benefit.—Perhaps the most valuable and certainly the most novel part of the work consists of the author's observations on swinging. He has made frequent use of the rotatory or circulating swing, and, as it appears, with the most decided advantage. It has the effect of singularly disposing the patient to sleep, and possesses the power of bringing on a general relaxation of the system, without inducing subsequent debility. If, in other instances, it answers the character given of it by Dr. Cox, it will prove a valuable auxiliary in the cure of insanity.

An appendix in two parts is subjoined; '1. of the method of granting certificates, 2. of medical jurisprudence in cases of insanity.' The author notices, and very justly reprobates, the existing laws with regard to the method of granting certificates. Any person, who professes himself to belong to any department of medicine, has it in his power to attest and render effective one of these instruments, by which an individual may be removed from society, and retained in confinement; and that an improper use has occasionally been made of this power, in order to satisfy the unprincipled avarice of a greedy heir, is a fact which, we fear, cannot be doubted.—The remarks on medical jurisprudence are on the whole judicious, but they are too concise to produce any great effect. We agree with the author in thinking that the subject is not in general sufficiently considered by the practitioners of medicine.

From the strictures which we have made on Dr. Cox's volume, our readers will infer that our opinion of its merits is not high. The first part we regard as ill-arranged and defective; the observations which it contains are too frequently common-place and trifling; and it betrays a general want of that discrimination which renders a work interesting to the reader, and indicates in the writer a mind of a comprehensive cast. With respect to the method of cure, we meet with some observations which may be said to add to our stock of knowlege on the subject: but here we have to lament that the recommendations of certain medicines, or methods of treatment, are brought forwards in that sweeping manner which affords but little direction to the practitioner, when he is desirous of discovering to what forms of the disease particular remedies are more especially appropriate.—We cannot conclude without also remarking the little notice which Dr. Cox takes of his contemporaries: though we shall not venture to determine whether he considered them as unworthy of attention, or was unwilling that a comparison should be instituted between their productions and his own.

Bos.

ART. XII. *Memoirs of the Life of Agrippina, the Wife of Germanicus.* By Elizabeth Hamilton, Author of "Letters on the Elementary Principles of Education," &c. &c. 3 Vols. 12mo. 18s. Boards, Robinson.

THE highly elaborate and not less exquisite performance of the Abbé Barthélémi * captivated readers of all descriptions, and it met with success which has rarely been paralleled. To the reader of little reflection, this species of writing may appear to be as easy to attain as it is agreeable to peruse; and this illusion was probably the occasion of that estimable author being followed by a tribe of imitators, who did not comprehend the legitimate objects of such undertakings, and who were utterly unequal to the proper management of them: while the Abbé had entered on his design with a mind intimately and profoundly acquainted with the original authorities, and familiar with every source, whether obvious or remote, whence any aid could be derived in carrying it into execution. He was also blessed with the patience and perseverance which were necessary in order to collect together many widely scattered traits, and with the judgment and the address which were requisite to form them into one striking and well proportioned piece. In these qualifications, the copyists of his design have but slightly resembled him; and we fear that little exception to this remark can be made in favour of the fair author of the volumes before us. Indeed, her own confessions clear the subject of all doubt; and so candid and ingenuous are her statements in this respect, that they induce us to submit them to the reader, as accurate accounts of the contents of these pages.

'It now remains to give some account of the materials that have been employed in the compilation of the following Memoirs. These have been chiefly taken from the records of antiquity; for though it was only through the medium of translation that these could be consulted, it appeared more adviseable thus to apply to the source, than to seek for information from the compilers of modern history.

'Mr. Murphy's translation of the Annals of Tacitus, and the notes prefixed to that valuable performance, have afforded almost the whole of the outline; occasionally assisted by Suetonius, in Mr. Thomson's translation. For whatever related to Agrippina in Dio Cassius, or in V. Paterculus, the Author has been indebted to the kindness of two learned friends, who obligingly translated such extracts from each as they thought would be in any wise useful. In the description of manners and customs she has been assisted by the works of numerous writers, but where accuracy was required, has chiefly consulted the treatise of Mr. Adams on Roman antiquities. To avoid swelling the page with a parade of quotations, authorities have never

* Travels of Anacharsis. See Rev. Vol. lxxxii. p. 577.

been

been referred to except where the very words of the author are quoted; and it is believed that those who are most intimately acquainted with the original, will not be most forward to tax the author with having exaggerated the features of the portrait, which, with feeble hand, she has attempted to delineate.

'In the life of Agrippina, she has never departed from her authorities; though where they were silent, she has endeavoured to fill the chasm in the manner that appeared most consonant to probability. The employment of Agrippina's leisure hours, her domestic avocations, society, &c. were circumstances which it suited not the dignity of history to record. But circumstances too trival for history are essentially necessary to the biographer, who aims at exciting an interest for the subject of his memoirs in the reader's breast. General descriptions possess not a sufficient influence over the imagination or the feelings, to answer his purpose. "Where we do not conceive distinctly, we do not sympathize deeply in any human affection."

'If Agrippina may sometimes be found in scenes into which she was not followed by the historian,—the scenes themselves, every object with which they are filled, and every ornament by which they are decorated, are faithfully copied from the most authentic describers of ancient manners.

'The period of Agrippina's residence in Germany could not be passed over without some account of the native inhabitants. In a detached form, this account would have been disgusting to those to whom it was already familiar, and dull and uninteresting to the ignorant. By interweaving it with the narrative, it was hoped that it might be rendered acceptable to both. In a few other instances a similar liberty has been taken. How far the author has succeeded upon these occasions in keeping up the character of the heroine, by ascribing to her such sentiments and feelings as were perfectly appropriate, every reader will for himself determine.'

After these acknowlegements, for which we applaud the fair writer, her readers will not expect from her the elucidation of obscure passages, any new light on disputed facts, nor any addition to the detail of the manners of the times; nor will they look to her to supply features which the brevity of Tacitus and the desultory narrative of Suetonius have left wanting in the picture. If Miss Hamilton has well appreciated the character of her heroine which antiquity has transmitted to us, and if she has so filled up the outline as to render the whole consistent, the figure still wants that fulness and mellowness, and those happy strokes of nature, which the powers of the fair delineator would probably have imparted to it, had she been better acquainted with the habits and modes of life which prevailed among the antient Romans.

In perusing these volumes, however, the reader will find the intrigues and enormities of Livia, and the absolute dominion which she exercised over the mind of Augustus, distinctly and perspicuously stated; the finished rather than correct pictures

of German manners, by the immortal pencil of Tacitus, faithfully sketched; and all the horrors of the reign of Tiberius, and the sad degeneracy of that period, fully exhibited: while the narrative in general is interspersed with reflections founded on those benevolent and just views, which characterize the other labours of the author.

In the following passages, as in other parts, the object of Miss H. is to exemplify the principles which she laid down in her Letters on Education *:

'As the sphere of Agrippina's duties enlarged, her anxiety to fulfill them increased in an equal proportion; and as of all the duties to which she was now called, the care and instruction of her children appeared the most important, it may be believed that she applied with assiduity to the delightful task. In an affair of such moment, Agrippina was too wise to be guided by the caprice of fashion. Considering that plan of education which had produced the greatest and the wisest men as most worthy to be adopted, she endeavoured to follow the method that had been pursued in former times. In those times, the first words lisped by the infant tongue had been to the Roman ladies a signal for commencing the labour of instruction. Sensible of the advantages of a distinct articulation, they wisely endeavoured, while the organs of speech were flexible, to form them to the pronunciation of every difficult sound. By this attention alone it is that children can acquire such a command of those organs, as is not only essential to eloquence, but highly useful in bestowing a facility in the acquirement of every foreign language. From the time that a child could speak, no inaccuracy of expression was permitted to pass unnoticed; and that they might be enabled thus to lay a foundation for that preeminence in the art of oratory, which was a primary object of ambition, ladies of rank assiduously cultivated the study of their native language. They learned to speak with peculiar purity and elegance, and valued themselves upon this accomplishment, as one that could be rendered useful to their offspring.

'No sooner did it become fashionable to consign the tender period of infancy to the care of slaves and mercenaries, than oratory declined: nor was it oratory alone that suffered by this pernicious change, since to the same cause may fairly be attributed the decline of taste.

'To render the mind susceptible of the emotions of sublimity or beauty, is not a task to be performed by the vulgar. To persons of this description the rules of criticism may indeed be known, and by pedants they may be applied with great sagacity; but to feel, to admire, and to enjoy excellence of every kind and species, is a privilege that not "all the learning of the schools" can bestow on a coarse or vulgar mind.

'In fixing the associations by which this sensibility may in some respects be said to be created, the virtuous and well educated mother possessed so many advantages over the servile or mercenary preceptor,

* See M. R. Vol. xxxviii. p. 408. and Vol. xxxix. p. 49.

that

that we cannot be surprised at her superior success. To the instructions of Cornelia, historians have attributed the eloquence of the Gracchi; and it was from Atia that Augustus acknowledged having derived those mental accomplishments which endeared him to the Roman people. Nor did the first and greatest characters of the Roman world scruple to confess similar obligations to the virtuous matrons from whom they derived their birth.

'Women so capable of instructing their sons must have made no small progress in taste, knowledge, and literature. They were in fact highly accomplished: and as all their accomplishments tended to some useful purpose, they were unaccompanied by vanity.'—

'The character of Antonia had been too much venerated by her son, to permit him to entertain that contempt for the female mind, which by removing every idea of equality, frequently renders the hymeneal chain so galling. He did not consider Agrippina in the light of an inferior and irrational being, incapable of entering into his sentiments, and unworthy of his confidence and friendship. He knew that it was not the honour of sharing in her husband's studies, nor the consciousness of being the chosen companion of his serious hours, that would lead her to neglect the peculiar duties of her situation, or to go beyond her sphere. The conduct of Agrippina did honour to her husband's discernment, and rewarded his tenderness. By her active mind every hour was occupied by its appropriate duties, and of these the improvement of her understanding was neither last nor least.

'Embued from her earliest years with a taste for literature, she delighted to listen to the conversations that were held at her husband's table by the most learned men of the age. Supper, the favourite repast of the Romans, and the only meal at which the family regularly assembled, commenced rather earlier than the modern hour of dinner; and sometimes lasted till the evening was far advanced. But the time spent at table was not lost. It was then that Agrippina had the opportunity of hearing such discussions on every interesting subject, as strengthened her understanding, and improved her taste.'

Miss Hamilton cannot be too much commended for the anxiety which she displays to inspire liberal and generous notions, to enforce virtuous habits, and to inculcate principles friendly to the best interests of mankind. We applaud her zeal, and her pious intentions; yet we do not think that the practice of accompanying the relations of prophane history with Christian reflections is very conformable to good taste. The lofty spirit and the ambition of Agrippina were the faults of her rank and station, and are scarcely to be imputed to the religion of Rome. If the personages of the Roman drama which represented characters of worth had been more strongly in Miss H.'s recollection, she would have felt that the sentiments and views of virtuous heathens, respecting the moral duties, were less defective than she describes them to have been. In adverting to the defects of this work, we by no

means wish to discourage a perusal of it, but it is, we fear, too didactic and too moral ever to become a favourite at the circulating libraries.

Jo.

ART. XIII. *The History of Egypt;* from the earliest Accounts of that Country, till the Expulsion of the French from Alexandria, in the Year 1801. By James Wilson, D.D., Minister of Falkirk. 8vo. 3 Vols. 1l. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1805.

THE antient fame of Egypt, its Greek dynasty, its schools and libraries, its religious disputes, and the frequent revolutions which it has undergone, seem to create in its favour high pretensions as a subject of history: but a nearer view of the matter satisfies us that the supposition is fallacious. Its early records are full of fable. Of its affairs under the Ptolemys, our information is scanty. Its colleges of philosophy, and the controversies of the church, principally illustrate it while under the Roman yoke. In the reigns of the immediate successors of Mohammed and the Ommiades, all was turbulence and violence; the country was a prey to frequent ravages, and groaned beneath almost uniform oppression. Under the best of the Abbassides, the Caliph Haron al Raschid, it was studiously neglected. Its condition appears not to have much improved when it came to be independent, and ruled by Caliphs of its own; and it is difficult to say whether its situation has been more wretched as an Ottoman province, or during the recent anarchy of the Mamelukes. The singular events, however, which have lately drawn attention to it, naturally led Dr. Wilson to suppose that a history of it, from the remotest period to the present moment, would be received by the public as an acceptable communication.

Our oldest sources of information respecting Egypt are thus correctly pointed out by the author:

'Herodotus flourished little more than 400 years before the appearance of Christ; Diodorus Siculus was in the height of his pursuits about 40 years before the Christian era; and Strabo did not die till several years after the birth of Christ. As to Plutarch, he lived till towards the middle of the second century. The history of Egypt, which was written by Manetho, about 300 years before Christ, was professedly composed from the writings of Hermes, and historical journals, which were kept in the temples of Egypt. This author displays considerable moderation and wisdom, but a few fragments of his history are all which remain; and the authenticity of the sources from which he drew his information cannot now be fully ascertained. When Cambyses took and pillaged Egypt, he carried away the best of its records, and left historians to seek for past truths among the multitude of varying traditions.'

We cannot help being of opinion that Dr. Wilson might, without inconvenience, have dwelt less on the dreams of Herodotus, and the tales of Diodorus.

The heat of the climate, it is observed, is aggravated by the vicinity of extensive sandy desarts; while no high mountains, and no fall of showers, occur to moderate its intenseness.

In a work of this nature, the well informed reader can expect to find little that is new; and the few specimens from it, which we shall select, are introduced rather to display the author's manner, than to gratify those who peruse them. We meet with the following just sketch of the first monarch of the Grecian dynasty:

'Ptolemy I. was now set upon a throne, and swayed the sceptre of an independent nation. No prince was ever more desirous of doing good to his people, by bestowing upon them every possible blessing of knowledge and protection. In the arrangements of literature he was assisted by the wise and justly celebrated Demetrius Phalereus. In the sunshine of favour, while Demetrius was governor at Athens, he was held in the highest respect, and honoured with many statues; but by the restlessness of popular opinion, he was soon stripped of his honours, and doomed to punishment. After a diversity of unfortunate events, he fled to Egypt, and enjoyed the friendship of Ptolemy. This refugee of Greece was polished in his manners, and elegant in learning. Ptolemy was himself a man of high accomplishments, and knew the value of the splendid talents which Demetrius possessed. The king was resolved to form a library for the encouragement of science, and was peculiarly pleased with the assistance of Phalereus, in accomplishing his design. In connection with the library, he founded a college, or museum, which became the abode of learning and learned men. The buildings of this museum were adjoining the palace, and in that quarter of the town which was called Bruchium. Ptolemy's attention to the commercial interests of the country induced him to build a watch-tower, or light house, upon the island of Pharos. To form a ready access a causeway was constructed, which was nearly a mile in length, and reached from the island to the shore.'

We shall subjoin the author's account of the celebrated Cleopatra:

'To the beauty and gracefulness of her person, Cleopatra added the attractions of wit, affable manners, and high mental acquirements. Amid the pleasures and avocations of a court she ceased not to cultivate learning; and in addressing people of different languages, she astonished them with the correctness and fluency of her diction. Her understanding was enlightened, but her heart was corrupt. Ambition, vanity, and wantonness, were predominant passions in her soul; and by these she lost her power, her reputation, and finally her life. While there are some minds resolutely bent upon evil, others are drawn into temptation by the unfavourable circumstances of their lot.

Cleopatra was born in troublesome times, and drew her first breath in the contagion of a licentious court. While in tender years, she was raised to the seducing eminence of a throne, and surrounded by a crowd of flatterers, who neither durst reprove, nor desired to correct, the increasing follies of her conduct.

'Being beautiful, she was admired; as a queen, she was addressed with adulation; and possessing the means of indulgence, she yielded to pleasure in various forms. Let us not offer one excuse in favour of her crimes, because the knowledge and experience of riper years should have corrected the errors of early life; but in reviewing so extraordinary a character, we have endeavoured to lead to the sources from which the streams of her indiscretion and misfortunes flowed. How many difficulties have they to struggle with, whose rank is high, and whose station is exalted! Venerable, peculiarly worthy of respect, are they, who, amid the seducements of wealth and honours, choose the path, and walk in the way, of wisdom. While they live, they live in esteem; and when they die, their memory is sacred, and held in respect.'

The peculiarity of the government of this country while a Roman province has often been noticed, and is thus stated in these volumes:

'Lest the Egyptians should aspire to independence, or some artful Roman declare himself their leader, no intercourse was suffered to exist between the noblemen of Rome and those of Egypt. To prevent every fear of disloyalty, where every thing deceitful and violent was to be apprehended, Augustus made choice of Cor. Gallus for managing the government of Egypt. When vested with the command of Paretonium, he had shewn himself friendly to the interests of Augustus; and being only of equestrian rank, he was not precluded from an office in Egypt. As a further guard against the contingencies of ambition, Egypt was governed in a different manner from the other provinces intrusted to Augustus. Whereas they were under the immediate direction of proprætors, who possessed military rank, and were accountable only to Cæsar, the governor of Egypt was but a prefect. Part of the provincial powers of this nation were vested in an officer denominated *juridicus*, who administered justice, and managed the fines and forfeitures of the state. Thus the prefect was without two great instruments of aggrandizement, the power of life and death, and the command of the public money.'

Speaking of the treachery of the interesting Gallus, the first governor of this important province, the author observes;

'In Cor. Gallus we see an instance of that inveterate rage which friendship converted into enmity seldom fails to produce. Embittered friendship feels deeper rancour than that which is engendered by the common offences of life. The high attachment which the Egyptian prefect felt for Augustus sunk into hatred and deep resentment. In the day of his disgrace every favour was forgotten, and he spoke with disrespect of his former friend Cæsar Augustus. So open and violent were his proceedings, that they roused the senate into a spirit

spirit of inquiry, and a decree was passed that he should be banished from the territories of Rome. But he refused to survive the sentence, and by a voluntary death, defied the punishment. While these things were transacted, Augustus was in Spain, suppressing an insurrection upon the mountainous coast of the bay of Biscay. He sighed for the fate of Gallus, and expressed deep regret that he had not been consulted in punishing the crimes of an old, though treacherous friend.

'The poetical merit, as well as the military glory, of Gallus, contributed towards the esteem in which he was held by Augustus. He was also beloved by Virgil; and to him that poet addressed his tenth eclogue, in relation to the tender attachment which Gallus cherished for the unworthy Lycoris. That false and ungrateful lady forsook the fond endearments of Gallus, and followed Antony to the camp; but there she was superseded in his affections by the arts of the celebrated Cleopatra, and suffered the disgrace which licentiousness deserves, and which, in the wisdom of providence, it generally receives. We are told that Virgil wrote an eulogium upon Gallus, and subjoined it to his Georgics; but, afraid of giving offence to Cæsar, whom his friend had justly offended, he expunged the beautiful effusions of affection, and added the delightful episode of Euridyce and Aristeus.'

Egypt, the scene of turbulence and bloodshed on account of controversies the most frivolous and extravagant, and a prey to religious feuds, became an easy conquest to Amru ben Alas, the brave and respectable lieutenant of the Caliph Omar. The narrative of its transitions under the several dynasties of the Ommiades, Abassides, and other obscure stocks,—of its situation under its own Caliphs the Fatimites,—and of its subjection to the Ayubite, the Baharite, and the Borgite Sultans,—furnishes little of either amusement or instruction. The story of the noble barbarian, the heroic and victorious Sultan Saladin, is well known to readers of the histories of the Crusades, and of the immortal poem in which the principal adventurers in those expeditions are embalmed.

Of the provincial regimen under the Ottoman government, the outlines of which were drawn by Sultan Selim, we have here this account:

'Selim remained a considerable time in Egypt after he had brought it into subjection, and carefully settled the affairs of that country. At the head of the government he placed a pasha or viceroy, with various subordinate officers of state. Reviewing this government, in its full form, we observe a divan or council of regency, composed of those who commanded the different military corps, together with the pasha, who was the constituted and regular president. Twenty-four Mamlukes, with the dignity of begs, beys, or princes, were intrusted with the government of the various districts and departments of Egypt. From among those beys were chosen the Sheik al Belled, or governor of Grand Cairo; the Janizary Aga, or commander of that corps; the Defterdar,

Defterdar, or accountant-general; the Emir al Hage, or conductor of the caravan; the Emir al Said, or governor of Upper Egypt; and the Sheik al Bikkeri, or director of the sherifs. In subordination to those, there were cashephs, or deputies, and other officers of inferior note.

'Selim conveyed with him from Grand Cairo to Constantinople, the caliph, or spiritual head of the Mohammedan religion. In the course of our inquiries we have seen that high office stripped of its temporal powers; and, when Selim conquered Egypt, the caliph was living in obscurity, and supported by the precarious bounty of a weak and distracted court. Upon the death of this caliph, another pontiff was appointed in his stead; but a mufti was soon chosen and constituted the supreme director of the Mohammedan faith. This chief ecclesiastic resides at Constantinople; but inferior imams are placed at the head of the four different religious sects which prevail in Egypt. A mulla, or chief judge, with cadis under him, sit upon the tribunal; but we shall find, in the progress of this history, that they were in some measure superseded by the encroaching power of the beys. The residence of the pasha was appointed to be in the castle of Grand Cairo, and there the divan was ordained to meet. Cair was the first pasha, and Gazel, who had joined him in betraying the interests of the last sultan of Egypt, and who had contributed so essentially to the success of Selim in subduing that country, was constituted governor of the Syrian districts.'

Having stated the circumstances which contributed to increase the power of the Beys, the author says that,

'As they rose in strength, the members of the divan became weak and subservient. The beys had formerly chosen their own Cashephs, or deputy governors; and, in their respective departments, had a considerable and almost uncontrouled authority. Though their office was merely of a civil nature, yet each of them had a few Mamlukes at his command; but they were solely for the purpose of enforcing his authority, in collecting the tribute and regulating the affairs of his department. But in the progress of their power, the beys purchased slaves from Circassia, Georgia, and Mingrelia; and in proportion to the numbers which they acquired, so was their strength. Under the cherishing hand of the beys, their favourite Mamlukes rose to different offices of importance; and they too having purchased slaves, added their strength to that of their patron. Thus the power and influence of a bey were in direct proportion to the Mamlukes which he himself commanded, and to the slaves which his dependants possessed.

'The subordinate officers who were appointed by the beys, remained in the interest of their masters, not only from the powerful and amiable principle of gratitude, but also from the hope of being raised at length, by their influence, to the honour and dignity of beys. When the road to power was thus open, a competition ensued for increasing the number of military dependants; and as the divan of Grand Cairo became totally subservient to the views and power of the beys, so the chief who had the greatest number of followers was able

able to procure, for his favourite dependant, the appointment to the rank and situation of bey, when such an office became vacant.'—

'The Mamlukes are kept up or increased by slaves, who are annually imported, and sold in Egypt. Many of them marry, but few of them comparatively have a family of children. This general deficiency is partly ascribed to their dissipated conduct, and the unnatural crimes of which they are guilty; but is also supposed to be owing, in some degree, to the connections which they commonly form with those female slaves who are brought from the same country as themselves. It has been suggested, that as plants of one climate do not thrive in another, which is very different in temperature and seasons, unless they be managed and trained in a peculiar manner; so it has been imagined, that the Mamlukes, who are chiefly natives of colder regions, would be more certain of possessing children of their own, provided they would deign to intermarry with Egyptian women.'

The beys are elective; and, if they happen to have children, such children do not succeed to their father's property, but the deputy of each bey is his heir.

Latterly, it is well known, remarks this writer,

'The beys seized every office of importance in the province of Egypt, with the exception of that of viceroy, which is uniformly filled by the appointment of the grand signior. But if they could not usurp the office of pasha, they grasped his privileges, and annihilated his power. We have found, in the course of investigation, that the beys encroached so much upon the authority of the viceroy that they dismissed him at pleasure; and then so little was his office regarded, that whereas the meetings of the divan were formerly held in the castle where the pasha resided, we find, in the period at which we have now arrived, that they were held in the house of the most powerful bey. But the remains of courtesy, and the forms of obedience, induced them still to wait upon the viceroy, when a firman, or mandate, of the grand signior was to be read and made known.'

A very interesting account is here given of Ali bey, of his successful opponent Mohammed bey, and of their successors Murad and Ibrahim, who agreed to share the country between them;—and thus we are brought down to our own times. On the Egyptian expedition under Bonaparte, and on all that has been consequential and collateral to it, we have had so many occasions to make our remarks, that we shall abstain from adverting to it in the present instance; contenting ourselves with observing that, in this part of the work, we do not perceive that either the manner or the matter intitles it to superiority over preceding statements.

Dr. Wilson is unquestionably a man of talents; and the rapidity of his narrative, and his flow of language, give considerable animation to his pages. The composition, however, often resembles rather the oratory of the pulpit than the detail

of

of the historian, and is frequently marked by Scotticisms. Throughout, the performance bears all the characteristics of a temporary production: we discover in it no trace of deep research; and the operation of digesting very ordinary materials has, in many instances, been negligently performed. We are persuaded, indeed, that the author did not, in the present case, contemplate a standard work, but that his object was rather to satisfy the demand of the moment. We are surprized, therefore, to find the history spun out to such a length, since a much more condensed narrative would have fully supplied the public exigency. The quantity of crude literature, which the press is every day throwing out, is become a growing and an alarming evil; and this observation can in no instance be more seasonably made, than in that of a writer who seems qualified to benefit good letters, and to earn for himself honourable fame. Had the labour bestowed in the manufacture before us been tripled, the article would have been reduced to one half of its present bulk; it would have interested by its neatness and its elegance; and it would not have depended for its existence on temporary curiosity.

Jo.

ART. XIV. *Practical Agriculture;* or a complete System of Modern Husbandry: with the Methods of Planting, and the Management of Live Stock. By R. W. Dickson, M.D. 4to. 2 Vols. 4l. 4s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1805.

MUCH as we are disposed in general to condemn book-making-jobs, we cannot be dissatisfied with works of this kind when they appear to be executed with adequate patience and ability. To bring together into one connected whole the information which is scattered through many volumes; to state clearly and fully the alterations and improvements which agriculture has experienced; to arrange facts and opinions; and so to display the different modes of practice in every department of the art as to exhibit a complete system of Modern Husbandry;—all this forms an undertaking of some magnitude: for the due performance of which, considerable industry and practical knowlege are requisite; and of the utility of which, if it be on a sufficient scale to include the necessary accompanyment of numerous plates, no doubt can be entertained.

In favour of Dr. Dickson, it must be observed that he is qualified for the task which he has imposed on himself, and that he seems to have spared no labour nor expence in making his Compendium of Practical Agriculture worthy of public patronage. Not fewer than eighty-seven plates are given with

the letter-press, to illustrate the different branches of his subject, affording views of almost every agricultural machine and implement in modern use, of farm-buildings and cottages, of fences and gates; of the various modes and materials of drainage; sections of roads illustrative of their construction; the several kinds of grasses most deserving cultivation; the Herefordshire and Sussex Bull and Ox; the Dishley and South Down Ram and Ewe; Suffolk Punches and Cart-Horses; and Swine. The method pursued in this compilation is not unlike that which we have noticed in other works of this kind: but, as Dr. D. has not confined himself in point of space, he must be considered as being more full in his details than any of his predecessors. By those who allow for the quantity of matter compressed into these two thick volumes, and the series of plates by which they are inriched, it will not be regarded as a dear publication: but, viewing it as a Farmer's Library, as a book of reference, we must not overlook the great defect that it is not furnished with a more ample Index. The author, indeed, supposes that he has obviated this necessity by a very copious table of Contents for each section: but this is not sufficient; for the farmer, wishing (E. G.) to turn to the subjects of Mildew, Blight, and Smut, in Corn, would find nothing to direct him in the Contents, and would be disappointed if he had recourse to the Index, which scarcely fills three pages, to supply the deficiency. It would occupy more time than we can spare, and make too large demands on our stock of patience, to examine and compare all the authorities which Dr. D. has quoted: but we think that he is generally correct, and that, as he seems to be a man of judgment and experience, the practitioner may confide in his reports.

In order to impress on the mind of the reader the importance of Agriculture, and the necessity of farther rousing the public zeal in this pursuit, Dr. D. quotes * a passage in his Introduction from Sir John Sinclair; who tells us that "of the sixty-seven millions of acres which Great Britain contains, *five millions only are employed in raising of grain:*" but had Dr. D. reflected for a moment, and compared this statement with the amount of our population, he must have seen that it cannot be accurate. How are eleven millions of inhabitants to be supported in a country in which only five millions of acres are employed in raising corn? Middleton, in his View of the Agriculture of Middlesex, (p. 389, and p. 483,) calculates that

* *A-propos* to quotations. Dr. D. only mentions his authorities generally. Why not refer to the chapter, section, and page?

"8 bushels or 1 quarter of Wheat is on an average the quantity annually required for each person of all ages and conditions; that this quantity is about equivalent to the average net produce of half an acre of land; that taking the population of South Britain at 8 millions, four millions of acres must be annually sown with wheat; and including the demand of *barley* for beer and the distilleries, oats for horses, and the several roots cultivated by the plough, the quantity of arable land, in South Britain only, is something less than fourteen millions of acres."

That our home produce, however, is not adequate to our consumption, and that we are obliged annually to import a large quantity of grain, are facts of which all are aware, and which have been repeatedly adduced as an argument for the encouragement of agriculture. Notwithstanding the numerous bills of inclosure which have been passed in the course of the present reign, our growth of corn is unequal to our expenditure; and it is contended that farther measures ought to be adopted, to make us independant of all foreign supplies of grain. For this purpose, it has been thought necessary 'to take a cursory view of the principal causes which appear to have impeded the advancement of agriculture as a science, and of those that operate against its extension and improvement as a practical art.' Among the former, Dr. D. reckons the want of scientific knowlege and correctness; and among the latter, the preservation of commons and of *commonable* property, certain modes of tenure, the game laws, the want of proper and judicious leases, and above all the payment of tythes in kind. These impediments are briefly mentioned; after which the author passes to a statement of the objects which he has laboured to attain in the present undertaking.

'He has endeavoured as much as possible to furnish the farmer with a more correct knowledge of the qualities and methods of operation of those materials or substances with which he is to accomplish his various purposes, as well as the changes which they undergo by an intimate combination with each other; and the modes in which they may be applied and made use of with the greatest chance of success and advantage.

'The former of these have been objects of much consideration in the present work. It has also been his wish to extend the bounds of his information in respect to the means of cultivating the different plants which constitute the food of man, or which serve for the purpose of feeding cattle and other domestic animals. In this intention, the various improvements that have been effected in the nature of tillage and the interposition of different sorts of green crops with those of the grain kind, as well as in the implements and machinery by which they may be performed with the greatest economy and convenience,

venience, have been brought to his notice in as clear and concise a manner as the nature of the subjects admitted.

'And as the various products of the earth can only afford a trifling advantage to the cultivator, unless he be perfectly acquainted with the means of applying them as the food of animals, the methods of management that appear the most beneficial in the breeding, rearing, feeding, and fattening different sorts of live stock, have, it is hoped, been more fully explained, and placed in more clear and distinct points of view.'

In the execution of this plan, 1234 pages are occupied. The work is divided into thirteen sections, including copious details relative to—the Improvements of Husbandry—Farm Houses and Offices—Farm Cottages—Inclosing of Land—the Construction of Roads—Soils—Manures—Draining of Land—Paring and Burning—Fallowing of Land—Cultivation of Arable Land—Cultivation of Grass Land,—and Live Stock. Hence it would appear that the whole subject is not embraced. The business of embanking and the process of recovering land from the sea are indeed omitted in the body of the work, but supplied in the Additions. Woods and Plantations do not, as we should expect from the title, make a distinct section, but they are inserted at the end of that which is devoted to the consideration of Grass Land, the Dairy, the Suckling of House-Lamb, &c. Gypsum is not mentioned in the section on Manures. Perhaps Dr. Dickson does not regard it as of much value: but, as some writers have spoken highly of its efficacy, it ought not to have been silently passed over in a practical treatise.

The implements of husbandry here described consist of Swing and Wheel Ploughs, Drill Machines, Hoes, Scarifiers and Scufflers, Dregs, Harrows, Rollers, Threshing and Winnowing Machines, Chaff-cutters, Rakes, Waggons, and Carts. This section is illustrated by 16 plates. Towards the end of it, the Doctor hints that wheel-carriages are generally too heavy in their construction; and he remarks that 'Carts for many kinds of weighty goods need not, independent of wheels and axle-tree, weigh more than one hundred weight, and for most purposes they need not exceed two hundred weight. Large waggons, as well as heavy-constructed carts, should, therefore, except in particular situations, be exchanged for those of the lighter kinds, by which more work may be performed in an equal length of time, and with much greater ease and convenience.'

In treating of the construction of Granaries, the author supplies particular directions for the erection of those in which large quantities of grain are required to be preserved in a narrow compass: but it is observed that 'where the accommodation of the farm is the only object, it is quite unnecessary to pay

pay attention to all these circumstances, as a large quantity of threshed grain is seldom kept. Neither the same strength or expence of building is required as for those in which large supplies of corn are deposited. It is proper, however, in most cases, that a place of safety for corn sufficient for the reception of one half of the annual produce of the farm should be provided. Where the custom of housing grain prevails, there is seldom room enough left for erecting a granary within the barn; but where that practice is not regarded, and especially where there is a threshing-machine, the best and most convenient situation for it is the barn; proper tackle and conveniences for hoisting up the corn being provided.'

We were much pleased with that part of the work in which the writer argues the policy of having comfortable cottages with small gardens, on every estate, for the accommodation of the labouring poor:

'It has been a remark of great antiquity, that nations are rich in proportion to their population; and so, an able writer, on the subject of cottages, observes, "it is in a great measure with an estate or a farm, for the more numerous its inhabitants, the more easily will it be cultivated and improved. The erection of cottages is, therefore," says he, "an object of great importance to the farmer, as well as to the proprietor; but it is necessary for the mutual advantage of both parties, that the landlord and his cottagers should be on the best of terms; that he should regard them as part of his own family, and that they should look up to him as their best and surest friend and protector. Every cottager should, therefore, consider, that in promoting the interests of his landlord, whether proprietor or tenant of the farm, he is at the same time promoting his own; for a landlord has it much in his power to serve and oblige his cottagers in various ways, as they themselves must be sensible of."—

'The advantages of gardens are also great, in respect to the labourers themselves, as the attention they require prevents them from visiting the ale houses. The Rev. Mr. Townsend has somewhere well remarked, that "there is a striking difference between the cottagers who have a garden adjoining their habitations, and those who have no garden. The former," says he, "are generally sober, industrious, and healthy, whilst the latter are too often drunken, lazy, vicious, and frequently diseased."—

'It has been remarked by an accurate observer, that "the shattered hovels which half the poor of the kingdom are obliged to put up with, are truly affecting to a heart fraught with humanity. Those who condescend to visit these miserable tenements, can testify," he says, "that neither health nor decency, can be preserved in them. The weather frequently penetrates all parts of them; which must occasion illness of various kinds, particularly agues; which more frequently visit the children of cottagers than any others, and early shake their constitutions. And it is shocking that a man, his wife, and half a dozen children, should be obliged to lie all in one room together; and more

more so, that the wife should have no more private place to be brought to bed in. This description", says he, " is not exaggerated, offensive as it may appear. We are all careful of our horses, nay of our dogs, which are less valuable animals; we bestow considerable attention upon our stables and kennels; but we are apt to look upon cottages as incumbrances, and clogs to our property; when, in fact, those who occupy them are the very nerves and sinews of agriculture." Nay, he is bold to aver, that more real advantages flow from cottages, than from any other source; for, besides their great utility to landed property, they are the greatest support to the state, as being the most prolific cradles of population. He does not, however, wish to see the cottage improved, or augmented so as to make it fine, or expensive; no matter how plain it is, he thinks, provided it be tight and convenient.'

In a subsequent section, a farther hint is thrown out respecting this subject:

'It would probably be a measure of sound policy, as well in a national as other points of view, to have a provision in bills of inclosure, for the building of a certain number of cottages, proportionate to the extent of the inclosed common or waste, with a small allotment of land annexed to each, at least as much as is sufficient for a garden, which, in general, need not exceed a rood. These cottages should be solely destined for the use and advantage of such poor labouring persons as belong to the parish. Such a regulation as this would probably be attended with many good consequences; it would render the business of inclosing less objectionable to the labouring cottager, promote the cultivation of land, and at the same time have a tendency to lessen the expences of the poor.'

Various judicious observations are collected and arranged relative to the construction of Roads, which we recommend to the perusal of Commissioners and Surveyors. A want of scientific knowlege in this business occasions a great waste of materials on most of our public roads, and sometimes an unnecessary degree of hazard to the lives of travellers. The following hints merit general notice, especially since the invention of long-bodied coaches; which, by carrying heavy loads on the top, elevate the centre of gravity, and are easily overturned:

'That roads may be constructed in the ridge or sloping form with much propriety and success, in various situations, there cannot be much doubt; though experience, which is probably the best guide, would seem to shew, that the slightly convex shape is not only more generally applicable, but that which admits of the materials being laid in the most advantageous manner, in respect to the pressure and wear of heavy carriages, as well as other points of importance. But whichever form may be adopted, the road should never have much elevation in the middle, or be greatly rounded, only so much that the water may be well and easily taken off; as where either the one or the other is the case, there must be great inequality produced in the pressure of

carriages, by the weight being so much thrown on the lower wheel, and an increase of friction, from the inside of that part of the wheel through which the axle-tree passes bearing too hard against the shoulder, and the outside too much on the pin which confines it in its situation; by which the difficulty of the draught is greatly augmented and rendered more inconvenient for the animal. And further, accidents are more liable to take place in conveying top loads, or such substances as are of a liquid nature.'

It should also be considered that, when a road is kept moderately flat, every part of it may be used: but that when it is very convex, only the top or crown is safe for carriages; and the intention of the curvature, to carry off the water, may be frustrated by the deep rut made by the lower wheel, which, following the course of the road, and not that of the declivity, must remain full of water.

The section on the Cultivation of arable land, among a multitude of useful directions, contains Dr. D.'s opinion relative to Changing of Seed, which, if just, is valuable. His direction for preserving the best of the different kinds of grain for seed, in order to prevent degeneracy, is certainly preferable to the advice lately given in Sir Joseph Banks's Pamphlet on Blight, to reserve the lean corn for seed.

Dibbling of wheat is recommended, because it employs a considerable number of poor persons, saves seed, and improves the quality of the grain: but we are surprized that a practical farmer should not at the same time observe that the dibbling, on account of the multitude of hands requisite for the operation, cannot in country situations be prosecuted to any extent. The operations of agriculture demand dispatch;—the sun will not stand still.

Farmers are urged to ascertain the proper Rotation of Crops, as being one of the most important subjects which can occupy their attention, or exercise their ingenuity and skill. The opinions of Middleton and Billingsley are quoted on this occasion; and it is remarked that,

'Though no invariable rules can perhaps be laid down for the cropping of land, as much must constantly depend on soil, situation, climate, and other less important circumstances, the chief objects to be aimed at in this business would seem to be those of well adapting the crops to the nature of the lands and kinds of husbandry that are to be pursued, and that of alternating the green and root kinds with those of corn, in such a way as that the soil, while it remains the least possible time in an unproductive state, may be the least robbed of its fertility. In this manner the culture of the field may approach that of the garden, and the deteriorating effects of successive grain crops be guarded against, at the same time that more abundant supplies of both human and cattle food are produced.'

Under

Under the head of Wheat, the diseases to which this plant is subject in its growth are discussed; such as the *blight*, *blast*, *ustilago*, or *smut*. Each of these is fully described, and the author quotes a long passage from a paper of Mr. Somervjlle, which we recollect to have perused in the Communications to the Board of Agriculture, intended to prove that *Smut* is occasioned by a small insect, and is propagated from the seed to the future plant: but we cannot admit that his experiments are decisive. We entirely subscribe, however, to Dr. D.'s concluding remark: 'There are particular states of the weather that have considerable influence on the wheat crops at particular periods of their growth. When the season is sufficiently dry, there is seldom much injury done to them during the winter months, however severe they may be in other respects; nor in those of the summer, provided the weather is not too moist about the blooming season, as where that is the case the crops are mostly deficient.'

A comparison of the advantages of the Machines now substituted in the room of the Flail, in the operation of threshing grain, is properly inserted in a treatise of this kind:

'The flail method, from its being an extremely slow, tedious, and expensive process, and at the same time one that requires a great number of labourers, can, perhaps, only be practised with advantage on the smaller kinds of arable farms, that are cheaply situated in respect to the command of workmen, and where the expense of large machines would be much too great for the quantity of grain which they produce. But even in these cases, if the small hand threshing-engines that are constructed on cheap simple principles, and which occupy but little room, should be brought to perform the business in an easy, expeditious, and effectual manner, which seems not improbable from the improvements that have been recently made in this sort of machinery, it will most probably be to the advantage of such farmers to abandon it, as the saving in various ways must soon repay them the expense of the machines, and at the same time afford them a considerable profit.

'Besides, where the threshing is performed by the flail, expensive barn floors, either of the fixed or moveable kind, will constantly be necessary. The latter sort may, indeed, sometimes be capable of being converted to other purposes. In this way too the produce is constantly exposed to the depredations of the persons that are employed in executing the business, which, in many cases, proves a source of great loss to the farmer, as he cannot by any means prevent the impositions to which it is liable. It has been well observed by the intelligent surveyor of a southern district, that where threshers are employed by the day, they frequently do not perform half the work that ought to be done in the time, nor even that in a perfectly clean manner; and that if it be executed by the quarter or the truss, the

freest corn is threshed out and the rest left in the ear*. The same thing takes place in a greater or less degree in every other method that can be adopted for having the threshing performed by the hand; it is consequently only by the general introduction and use of the threshing machine, that the property and interest of the farmer can be fully secured, and the work be executed with that degree of economy which the greatly increased price of labour demands.

'The superiority of the method by machinery over that of the flail is very considerable in many other respects, besides those of its executing the work in a much more clean and perfect manner†, and with infinitely greater dispatch, so as to admit of the farmer being present during the process. Sufficient supplies of both corn and straw may at any time be almost immediately provided, either for the purposes of seed, the market, or the feeding of animals, without the other operations of the farm being in any degree interrupted. It is likewise obtained with much less waste of the grain, and with less danger of its being injured by being bruised.'

When threshing by the Flail is performed by the truss or the bushel, the interest of the master and that of the servant are at variance. The thresher hurries over his business, and will not allow himself time to perform his work thoroughly and cleanly. Hence much corn is left in the straw, which is lost to the farmer and to the public.

Towards the end of the long section on the cultivation of arable land, Dr. Dickson introduces the process of laying down to grass; and he gives a catalogue, accompanied with handsome coloured plates, of the most approved natural and artificial grasses, viz. Sweet scented Vernal Grass (*Anthoxanthum odoratum*), Meadow Foxtail (*Alopecurus pratensis*), Smooth Stalk'd Meadow Grass (*Poa pratensis*), Meadow Fescue (*Festuca pratensis*), Rough Stalk'd Meadow Grass (*Poa trivialis*), Sheep's Fescue Grass (*Festuca ovina*), Hard Fescue Grass (*Festuca duriuscula*), Crested Dogstail (*Cynosurus cristatus*), Common Ray Grass (*Lolium perenne*), Rough Cock's Foot Grass (*Dactylus glomaratus*). To these are added Dutch or White Clover (*Trifolium repens*), Trefoil or Black Nonsuch (*Medicago lupulina*), Bird's foot Trefoil (*Lotus corniculatus*), Red Clover (*Trifolium pratense*), St. Foin (*Hedysarum onobrichis*), and Lucerne (*Medicago*

'* Corrected Agricultural Report of Middlesex.'

'† It was found by the author of the Survey of Kent, on having different parcels of wheat-straw of thirty-six pounds each threshed out clean by the flail, by different farmers, and the same weight of straw threshed after it came from the machine; the average produce of corn left in the straw by the common mode of threshing was half a pint in every thirty-six pounds of straw, more than that left in the machine method.'

sativa).

sativa). Yarrow is mentioned with commendation, but no plate is given of this plant.

To the account of grasses is added a detail of the practice of Meadow cultivation, including Manuring, Irrigation, Warping, Mowing, Hay-making, After-Grass, together with Grazing, Soiling, Dairying, Suckling, &c. Annexed to this section, as we have already remarked, are to be found the Methods of Planting announced in the title. Dr. D. does not profess fully to enter into and examine this subject, and only proposes to offer a few of the most useful practical directions for the notice of proprietors of estates. Fruit trees, timber trees, and coppice or underwood, are the three divisions of this head. On the cultivation of the apple and pear, many observations are taken from Mr. A. Knight; and on that of Timber-trees, Mr. Nicol is not less freely quoted.

The last section, on Live Stock, contains observations on the different breeds of Neat Cattle, Sheep, Horses, and Swine; and it concludes with noticing the subordinate objects of Rabbits, Poultry, Water Fowl, Pigeons, Bees, and Fish Ponds.

After having given the two different systems which have been pursued in endeavouring to improve various kinds of Stock, 1. that of crossing the various breeds, for the purpose of supplying the faults or defects of the one by the merits or perfections of the other; 2d. uniting the perfections of the same kind by continuing to breed from the best and most perfect animals in the same line, family, or blood; and having remarked that, in the present state of facts, no certain conclusions can be drawn, for the preference of one method over the other, Dr. D. makes this general observation:

'In this state of the facts, no certain conclusions can therefore be drawn. The safest plan is, probably, to have recourse to both methods, according to the nature of the improvement that may be required; and as there is no possible means yet discovered of rendering accidental varieties, in either the animal or vegetable kingdom permanent, the best way is constantly to breed from the best and most perfect animals of their kind.

'It is indeed obvious, that in the crossing method of breeding, though it must be allowed to be extremely useful in many respects, the greatest care and circumspection should be employed to adapt the animals in the most perfect manner to the nature of the improvement which is required; otherwise the breed may be in danger of sustaining injury instead of advantage. From the vague and random manner, indeed, in which attempts to improve the breeds of live stock, on this principle, have in general been conducted, it would seem not improbable but that disadvantage may often have been produced by bringing together such breeds, as, from the great differences in their forms, qualities, and other properties, could have little or no chance of effect-

ing the purpose of improvement in any useful manner. The agricultural surveys of most of those districts where breeding or grazing has been carried to any extent, almost uniformly complain, that useful breeds of live stock have been injured and debased by the practice of crossing injudiciously conducted. And a late writer, in speaking of sheep, has well observed, "that to the mountebank doctrines of crossing dissimilar breeds, which Nature in its infinite wisdom had set asunder, we are indebted for much confusion and mismanagement." But it must notwithstanding be allowed, that by crossing, when conducted with sufficient judgment, improvement may in a great measure be effected, especially in what relates to bone or size, the hide or coat, the bettering of particular points or parts, and perhaps in what regards the movement or speed of the animal: but in other views it would seem incapable of producing those beneficial effects which should constanly direct the steps of the breeder.'

From the extracts which we have made, the reader will form some opinion of the merit of this compilation. Dr. D. acknowleges his obligations to Messrs. Elkington and Johnson on the subject of Draining; to Messrs. Beatson and Crocker for observations on the nature of farm buildings, cottages, and on the construction of roads; and to Messrs. Young and Marshall for facts and details of a practical kind. He also owns himself indebted to Mr. Salisbury, the successor of Mr. Curtis at the Botanic Garden, Brompton, for accurate drawings of natural British grasses *; and to Messrs. Garrard and Scott for those of several breeds of cattle and sheep.

A valuable Appendix is subjoined, containing a compendious view of the principal Laws relating to Agriculture. This part of the work has been arranged and digested by Mr. Thomas Walter Williams, the barrister.

Moy.

ART. XV. *The History of the Orkney Islands:* in which is comprehended an Account of their present as well as their antient State; together with the Advantages they possess for several Branches of Industry, and the Means by which they may be improved. Illustrated with an accurate and extensive Map of the whole Islands, and with Plates of some of the most interesting Objects they contain. By the Rev. George Barry, D.D., Minister of Shapinshay. 4to. pp. 509. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Constable and Co. Edinburgh; Longman and Co. London. 1805.

No inconsiderable interest is certainly imparted to the contents of this volume, by the remoteness of the Orkneys, the little intercourse which they hold with the central parts of the empire, the incidents of a foreign population, their long

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* In the additions and corrections to the 2d volume, are some remarks by Mr. Salisbury on the merit of these grasses.

connection with another state, their subsequent incorporation with the crown of Scotland, and the difference of their manners, laws, and usages. On persons who feel anxiously for the welfare of the empire, this history will have a farther claim, as exhibiting vices in the constitution and internal administration of a distant appendage to it, which demand attention from a paternal and patriotic government. We are given to understand by this sensible author, that, by an active co-operation on the part of the crown in which the church lands are vested, of the lord who possesses all the rights of antient feodality, and of the rich inhabitants, the circulation which animates the whole body, but which scarcely passes at all into this extreme limb, might be fully communicated to it. He advises that the vexatious rights and oppressive exactions of the lord should be commuted; and that the inhabitants should be encouraged to avail themselves of the facilities for commerce, for manufactures, and for fisheries, which distinguish these islands, and which, if duly cultivated, would render them populous and flourishing.

It is observed by the author;

'Great Britain itself is in a great measure level towards the east coast, through its whole extent, from the North-Foreland Head in Kent, to Duncansbay in Caithness, and rises gradually as it advances towards the west, till it swells at last into a ridge of hills or mountains, which Providence in its kindness seems to have erected as a bulwark against the fury of the Atlantic waves.

'The same conformation, though comparatively on a very small scale indeed, is observable in the Orkney Islands. Many, to their sad experience, too well know how low their eastern coasts, especially towards the north, are; for this circumstance, more than any other, has caused many fatal shipwrecks.

'Towards the west coast, on the other hand, from the one extremity of the islands to the other, the land is so elevated as, with a few interruptions, to form itself into a range of hills, not high indeed, but much more so than what are generally met with in the interior of the country. These hills, the highest of which does not exceed twelve hundred feet, do not always run in the longest direction of the islands, but frequently stretch across them; and while their sides that face the Western Ocean are bold and steep in the extreme, their opposite ones, for the most part, shelve away into plains of considerable extent, with a gentle declivity.

'The shores in this quarter are in many places bounded by rocks awfully majestic. In some places they remain entire: in others they have yielded to the force of the billows and the ravages of time, and are consequently shattered into a thousand different shapes, altogether forming a scene highly interesting. To the philosopher, such a scene presents an opportunity of contemplating the different strata, and sometimes of discovering some of those valuable minerals, which have been for ages hidden in the bosom of the earth, and would have been

so for ever, had not the ocean brought them to light. If his soul be alive to the awful impressions of the sublime, he will be lost in astonishment in contemplating the tremendous power of the billows, that on one hand of him have formed pillars of an immense size and thrown arches of a magnitude so vast as to mock the boldest and most successful attempts of human art, and, on the other, dug in the solid rock, caverns so dark and unfathomable, as cannot fail to strike the most undaunted heart with terror.'

With regard to the climate, he informs us that

'Some part of the month of June, which in Britain is well known to be of a pleasant and genial warmth, is here often not only colder than the preceding months, but almost as much so as any winter month. For about two weeks, and even sometimes more, about the middle of that month, the wind blows from the north, strong and piercing, accompanied with snow and hail showers, which drive domestic animals to seek shelter; clothe the fields with a dreary aspect, by checking the progress of the young plants, and blasting their buds and their blossoms, and to a stranger would seem to threaten the islands with famine. As soon as that period is past, the wind veers round, warm showers succeed which revive the tender herbage, that now recovers its former bloom and verdure; the whole tribe of animals again rejoice, and the heart of the husbandman is gladdened with the prospect of future plenty.

'The cause of this extreme and seemingly unnatural cold, evidently is the dissolving of the immense fields of ice in the Northern Ocean, which happens at that season, and the consequent evaporation.

'About forty years ago, the north wind wafted over the ocean, what is still recollected by the old people, by the name of the black snow, which at the time struck the inhabitants with terror and astonishment. Ever inclined to dread an uncommon appearance, which they have neither the capacity nor inclination to account for or explain, as portending some calamity, the people were in the most painful perplexity in regard to the threatened disaster, when their fears were happily dispelled by an account of an eruption of Mount Hecla, from which in all probability this black snow proceeded. If the distance between Iceland and Orkney staggers the faith of any with respect to this matter, they should recollect what has been stated as a fact, that in some of the eruptions of Ætna or Vesuvius, the ashes have been carried by the winds to the plains of Egypt.

'The climate presents to us another striking peculiarity. In most other countries, it is well known, thunder and lightning are, if not the effect, at least the attendant of warm weather in summer; and commonly the more hot and sultry that season happens in such places to be, they occur the more frequently. The reverse of all this happens here; for they very seldom are observed in summer, even in the hottest weather, but most commonly in winter, not indeed when the temperature is mild and the sky serene, but when the elements are in commotion: When it blows, rains, hails, or snows, thunder and lightning are frequenly the consequence. To whatever cause we may ascribe their appearance at this season, it seems to have no influence in

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rendering them either more violent or destructive; they are less so here than in other places; they are not accompanied with hailstones of such vast magnitude; nor have they such a tremendous glare, nor such loud and awful peals.

'Notwithstanding these irregularities, the climate possesses one quality superior to what is found in more favoured countries. As the islands stretch far to the north, it might have been expected they would have experienced all the inconveniences that arise from the extremities of heat and cold, that are felt under the same parallel in either the old or the new continent. This, however, is by no means the case; for, while the inhabitants of Hudson's Bay and Petersburgh are alternately panting with heat, or shivering with cold, the inhabitants of the Orkneys enjoy a temperature comparatively mild and moderate. In proof of this, it may be observed that the medium heat, as appears by the springs, amounts to forty-five degrees; and the whole range, between the extremities of cold in winter and heat in summer, is from twenty-five to seventy-five degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer. The range of the barometer is three inches. Hence, the few epidemical disorders which occur as the consequence of extremities of temperature, the good health and vigour, which the people often enjoy to an advanced age, and the instances that we sometimes meet with of longevity. There are none of those diseases that are called endemical.'

From a very accurate survey taken half a century ago, and which has been confirmed by repeated subsequent observations, it appears that

'The number of the Orkney islands amounts to no fewer than sixty-seven, twenty-nine of which only are inhabited, and the remaining thirty eight, which in the primitive language of the country have been denominated Holms, are much inferior in point of size, and have always been appropriated to pasturage. Besides all these, there are several which are overflowed at high water, and have scarcely any soil for the production of vegetables; on these, land animals can with difficulty subsist: these, in the same language, are called *Skerries*, a name which indicates sharp, ragged rocks. Even in these, however, insignificant as they may appear, temporary huts are sometimes erected in the summer season, on purpose to accommodate a few people employed in cutting, collecting, drying and burning the marine plants for the kelp manufacture. The Holms are at that season frequently occupied in the same manner, for the same beneficial purpose. As the grass on the latter seems to be very fine, and is at the same time luxuriant, both the sheep and cattle that feed on them soon acquire an uncommon degree of fatness. But there is something either in the nature of the plants which they produce, occasioned by their being frequently drenched by the salt water, or in the animals sometimes feeding on sea-weed, that renders their flesh less pleasant than that of others fed in different circumstances. Situated for the most part, near the larger islands, from which they appear to have been torn, both the Holms and Skerries belong generally to those proprietors whose lands are not the nearest, but divided from them by the shallowest water.'

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The principal island is the Mainland, or Pomona, which measures in length from East to West thirty English miles. In many parts its breadth is very small; and in the middle it does not exceed a mile, which reduces the island to two peninsulæ. The spacious and beautiful bay of Scalpa bounds the one side of the isthmus, and the bay of Kirkwall forms the other. 'The ancient town of Kirkwall stands on the north side of this tract of land, towards the south east side of the bay of the same name; and by a little rivulet which runs through the middle of the town, (over which a stone bridge of one arch has been built, for the convenience of the inhabitants), is divided into the old town, that bends along the bay, and the new that stretches a considerable way to the southward.'

As this place is the capital of the Orkneys, we subjoin the author's account of it:

'The town has only one street, nearly a mile long, with many excellent houses ranged an each side of it, which, both for the style in which some of them are built, and the manner in which they are finished and furnished, (to say nothing of the neat little gardens that are annexed to them), may bear a comparison with those of any small town in the kingdom. Several of the gentlemen of property reside here, and a considerable number of shopkeepers; but the body of the people is composed of tradesmen, boatmen, servants, and day-labourers: and when the population of the country parish, which makes a fourth of the whole, is considered, the united parishes of Kirkwall and St. Ola, in which there are two established clergymen, contain, the former about two thousand, and the latter five hundred inhabitants. Even in very old times it appears to have been a place of no small consequence; but the nature of its constitution, and the extent of its immunities and privileges, as enjoyed under a foreign government, we are in a great measure unacquainted with, for want of such documents as might serve for our instruction. Its being a place of much note, gives us reason for believing they must have been more than ordinary; and whatever they were they were all, soon after the cession of the islands, confirmed to it by a charter from the Scotish Sovereign, erecting it into a Royal burgh, which was corroborated by two succeeding monarchs; and the whole rights and advantages it conveyed were at last solemnly ratified by an act of Parliament. The government is in the hands of a Provost, four Magistrates, a Dean of Guild, Treasurer, and fifteen other members, which together compose a Council, that meets at Michaelmas every year for the purpose of alternately electing and being elected, and at other times to collect and dispense the public funds, and transact the other branches of business of the community. Kirkwall, and the four northern burghs, Wick, Dornoch, Tain and Dingwall, choose a burgess to represent them in the British Parliament. In this town, the Sheriff, the Admiral, the Commissary and Justice of Peace Courts, are also occasionally convened for the administration of justice; and for the cognizance and regulation of ecclesiastical matters, the three Presbyteries of which

which the provincial synod is composed, and also the synod itself, meet at least once a year, or oftener, according to circumstances. Here is also a customhouse and post-office, and a store-house, into which are collected the rents, that are mostly paid in kind, of both the bishoprick and earldom, which are generally let in lease to merchants, who sometimes dispose of them here, sometimes send them out of the country.

'There are also in it public buildings. Among these may be reckoned the town house, supported on pillars, forming a piazza in front, and in every respect a neat and commodious building, the first story of which is divided into apartments for a common prison, the second for an assembly-hall, with a large room adjoining for the courts of justice; and the highest is set apart as a lodge for the accommodation of the antient fraternity of free masons. To the west of this, and at no great distance, are the school-houses, in which are taught the several branches of English education, Greek, Latin, and Mathematics. These, however, are trifling, compared with the relicts of the Bishop's and Earl's palaces, the castle, once a place of great strength, and at their head that venerable pile the cathedral of St. Magnus. For nothing, however, is it more celebrated than for its excellent harbour, broad, safe and capacious, with a bottom of clay so firm, and a depth of water so convenient, as to afford anchorage for ships of a large size, and in great numbers.'

The author closes his geographical description of the islands by stating his conviction of the great benefits which would arise to the empire in general, from duly improving these sequestered spots.

Dr. B. supposes that Dung's bay, or Dunnethead, in Caithness, was the Cape Orcas of antiquity; from which, he is of opinion, this cluster of islands, directly opposite to it, derived its appellation. He follows Torfæus in thinking that the cape, which consists of a vast impenetrable rock, took its name from a term in old Danish, *Orca*, which signifies strength.

The original inhabitants are believed to have been the same with the Picts, emigrants from Scandinavia. These islands, which were long subject to the crown of Norway, were first subjugated by Harold Harfager, the founder of the Norwegian monarchy; and he established here one of his chieftains, Sigurd, who was created by him Earl of Orkney. This chief, not contented with the limits of his earldom, subdued Caithness and Sutherland, and over-ran the rich shores of East Ross and the fertile plains of Murray.—The isles continued in the allegiance of the kings of Norway and Denmark, till they were pledged to the crown of Scotland by Christian of Oldenburgh, who reigned over the whole of Scandinavia, a little before the year 1468, when he disposed of the Shetland isles in the same way, both of which have ever since continued in that dependence.

After these islands became subject to the crown of Scotland, they passed through the hands of various individuals, who held them under different tenures, and nearly all of whom harassed and oppressed the miserable inhabitants. James I. granted and resumed them several times. King Charles I., in the midst of his troubles, bestowed them on William Earl of Moreton: but he was deprived of them by Cromwell, who colonized them with some of his soldiers. They were restored to the Moreton family by Charles II., and shortly afterward they were resumed and annexed to the crown by act of Parliament. An Earl of Moreton, however, in 1742, obtained an absolute and irredeemable grant of them, which was confirmed by the legislature. This Earl, in his application to Parliament, had made promises of improving the islands in case they should be granted to him on the terms which he proposed: but we are here informed that he no sooner obtained possession, than he violated his engagements by retaining the old system, and by exacting in the same way and with the same rigour as formerly, the rents and feu-duties, or feudal rights. His tenants, resenting this conduct, rendered the tenure of them so little pleasant to him, that in 1766 he disposed of every right in them to the father of the present Lord Dundas, who is now in possession.—The actual population of the islands, as returned under the late act, amounted to about twenty-four thousand.

Dr. Barry's account of the miserable state of the agriculture of these islands would be scarcely credible, had he not accompanied it with a very elaborate disclosure of the causes from which it arises. Among these, he enumerates vices in the tenure, the smallness of the farms, the short duration of the leases, the abject poverty of the holders, the imperfect nature of the implements of husbandry, the want of controul over servants, and the absence of all stimulus to labour. He exposes to view the low state of the manufactures, commerce, and fisheries, and points out the methods by which they might be improved. We wish that our limits would allow us to abridge the statements of the intelligent author, in order to lay them before our readers: but the utility of information of this kind will, we trust, be admitted as an excuse for our inserting a few of the hints here thrown out for the improvement of these neglected districts.

'Farmers should be invited to take leases, which should be granted them, of a reasonable length, at rents moderatly low, and paid only in money; and steelbow, except in provender for cattle, should be henceforth discontinued, and all unlimited services totally abolished. For the same purpose, such lands as are *runrig* must be divided, and the

the boundaries so distinctly marked out, as in future to cut off all dispute; and, that the careful keeping of sheep, swine, cattle, &c. might not be neglected, the hill-dikes should be razed to the foundation, and the commons, which they now enclose so imperfectly, should be divided among the proprietors of the adjacent lands.

'These changes, which we cannot help thinking would be highly beneficial towards the introduction of a better system, would no doubt require both time, and an union among the heritors or landed proprietors, which unfortunately has seldom taken place, even in cases, where their common interest has been deeply concerned.

'Moreover, the feu-duties should be converted into money, which we apprehend could be attended with no disadvantage to any party; and if the undefined and fallacious weights, which have so long and so justly been the subject of complaint, were also changed for those of the kingdom, it would serve greatly to pave the way for so desirable an event. Some regulations, also, in regard to servants, should accompany these alterations, as contributing much to the same end. There are at present no proper markets for hiring them; nor has a sufficient regard to their character been paid; and their wages, instead of being given them in money, as in other places, consist sometimes of beer, malt, meal, cloth, and even of a piece of land, which they are allowed time to cultivate, to sow, and to reap, on their own account. In some places they are permitted to keep geese, swine, sheep, and cattle, on their master's grass and provender, in lieu of wages; and it is easy to see the inconveniences to which this mode of payment is subject, and the many evils which it is calculated to produce.

'Servants, in order to be good, ought to be engaged for a definite time, and for a particular purpose; plenty of such substantial food, and such competent wages should be given them in money, as to compensate for the labour that they sustain: no temptation of any kind should ever be held out to divert them from their master's interest; and when they are about to leave his service, a certificate of their having faithfully performed their duty to him, should be indispensable to their finding a new master. If some such regulations as these were rendered general, and duly observed, servants would soon become better acquainted with their duty, more honest, more submissive, and more active; and those that employed them would treat them more kindly, as they would find their interest promoted in being better served; and thus more concord would be established between those two orders of society, in which the comfort of individuals and the prosperity of the country equally consist.'

Runrig is a term used in these islands, which signifies intermixed. The feu duties mean the feodal duties claimed by the lord.

The author concludes his volume with the following summary and recapitulation of his labours:

'These Islands, of which twenty-nine are inhabited, and thirty-eight have no inhabitants, were early discovered, and seem evidently to have been first peopled by the Picts, who, from their language, manners,

manners, and customs, appear to have been a tribe of the ancient Goths.

'That branch of them which settled here, were, like the rest, a free people, though governed by supreme magistrates, under the name of Kings, who were, it is probable, one while independent, and at another tributary to the Pictish monarchs in the north of Scotland, for a period of several hundred years. Towards the end of the ninth, or the beginning of the tenth century, they were invaded, and yielded to the superior force of a warlike people, from the lakes and shores of Norway, by whom they were either extirpated or subdued, as we hear no more of them in the military transactions of that period, though these transactions are recorded at considerable length by the historians of the subsequent age. From that time, the Islands were under the dominion of the sovereigns of that country, who, by means of noblemen of very high rank, governed them as subjects, but not as slaves; insomuch that, during the continuance of their sovereignty, which lasted till after the middle of the fifteenth century, the people seem to have enjoyed a degree of liberty, which, in many parts of Europe, was at that time unknown. Still they laboured under the inconveniences, inherent in the condition of a remote province, far from the seat of power, and beyond the reach of riches and commerce. With few incentives to industry, they languished in indolence and obscurity, unless when they rushed into the field, to signalize their courage against their foes, who never attacked their persons or invaded their territory with impunity. But though this temporary exertion might secure them from dangerous enemies, by keeping alive their martial spirit, it could have little or no influence in creating or cherishing an useful and permanent activity. After they became subject, and were annexed to the Crown of Scotland, it might have been supposed that they would have improved in this respect. This, however, was not the case; for as they were sometimes farmed on short leases, or managed by *factors* or stewards for the Crown (who were frequently changed), and at other times given to needy court favourites for a short period, these men were all of them so destitute of any fixed or lasting interest in their welfare, as to prevent their engaging in any plans for their improvement.

'If those who held the first rank discovered no inclination to improve the place, of which they had the management, neither the lesser proprietors of land, nor the little traders, who were all of them burdened with a heavy load of taxes, could be supposed to have the disposition, or the ability, to undertake such an arduous task. Hence, notwithstanding the excellence of the soil of this country, and the very favourable situation for several kinds of industry in which it is placed, the lands are many of them yet lying in a state of nature, and almost all of them are but very imperfectly cultivated. Manufactures, with only one exception, have scarcely at this moment been entered upon; the fisheries are almost entirely neglected; and any little commerce that has hitherto been an object of attention, can hardly be considered as deserving the name.

'But, would his Majesty, who is in possession of the church lands, and who has an interest in their improvement, take the lead in their amelioration;

amelioration; were the Royal example followed by the noble person, who has a right to the feu-duties of the earldom, and has joined to that privilege an extensive private estate; and were the gentlemen and merchants to co-operate in such a business, we should very soon behold with pleasure a new and more interesting order of things take place.

'By such means as these, the lakes and marshes would in a short time be drained; the common lands and runrig lands would be divided; and all of them would be so improved, as to produce subsistence for the people, and materials for manufactures of different kinds. Manufactures and commerce and fisheries would spring up and rival one another; the inhabitants would become four times as numerous, more industrious, and consequently more happy; and the Orkney Islands, instead of being a neglected and comparatively useless province, would soon be made a valuable part of the British Empire.'

We cannot help anxiously wishing that the accounts and representations of this respectable author may meet with attention from those liberal and enlightened persons in the North of the island, whose rank and influence would enable them to get effectual measures adopted at once to rescue from wretchedness so considerable a portion of our fellow-subjects, and to add to the naval strength of the empire.

Jo.

ART. XVI. *Military Memoirs of Mr. George Thomas*; who, by extraordinary Talents and Enterprize, rose from an obscure Situation to the Rank of a General, in the Service of the native Powers in the North-West of India. Through the work are interspersed, Geographical and Statistical Accounts of several of the States composing the Interior of the Peninsula, especially the Countries of Jypoor, Joudpoor, and Oudipoor, by Geographers denominated Rajpootaneh, the Seiks of Punjaub, the Territory of Beykaneer, and the Country adjoining the great Desert to the Westward of Hurrianeh. Compiled and arranged from Mr. Thomas's original Documents. By William Francklin, Captain of Infantry; Member of the Asiatic Society; Author of a Tour to Persia, and the History of Shah Aulum. 4to. pp. 285. 1l. 5s. sewed. Printed at Calcutta in 1803, and imported by Cadell and Davies, London.

THE subject of these memoirs exemplifies in a striking manner the caprice of fortune. This account exhibits him as rising from the lowest station to high military command, sustaining the rank of an independent chief, placed on a level with the native Princes of India, the absolute Lord of an extensive territory, commanding an army of his own, carrying on wars, and forming alliances with neighbouring states. We see him displaying the talents of a warrior and a statesman, and frequently employing his power beneficially by extending assist-

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ance and protection to weak Princes, who had suffered from the violence of foes more mighty than themselves. We then behold the same favourite of the uncertain dame all at once deserted by her, and reduced nearly to his original condition. An unexpected turn of affairs, the union of a vast force, inauspicious incidents, the hatred and unmanly arts of an implacable enemy, occasion his fall from the height of grandeur to the situation of a private individual of very moderate means. For his fall he was indebted to an European adventurer like himself, whom fortune had destined to rise still higher than he had ascended, whom also she afterward reduced to a private condition, but whom she threw down more gently than she had degraded our countryman. Lord Wellesley afterward avenged on this man, du Perron, the injuries inflicted on Thomas.

Captain Francklin thus introduces to our notice the extraordinary individual who is the subject of his details:

'From the best information we could procure, it appears that Mr. George Thomas first came to India in a British ship of war, in 1781-2. His situation in the fleet was humble, having served as a quarter master, or, as is affirmed by some, in the capacity of a common sailor.

'Shortly after landing in the vicinity of Madras, the activity of his mind overcoming the lowliness of his situation, he determined to quit the ship, and embrace a life more suitable to his ardent disposition.

'His first service was among the Polygars to the southward, where he resided a few years.—But, at length, setting out over land, he spiritedly traversed the central part of the Peninsula, and about the year 1787 arrived at Delhi.—Here he received a commission in the service of the Begum Sumroo.—This Lady is well known in the History of the Transactions of Modern Times. Soon after his arrival at Delhi, the Begum, with her usual judgment, and discrimination of character, advanced him to a command in her army. From this period his military career in the north west of India may be said to have commenced.

'In various and successive actions against the Seikes, and others of the Begum's enemies, Mr. Thomas, by his courage and perseverance, rendered her authority respectable. By these successes, he obtained a considerable influence over the mind of his mistress, and was, for some time, her chief adviser and counsellor.

'But unfortunately for the mutual interests of both parties, after a residence of six, or seven years, Mr. Thomas had the mortification to find himself supplanted in the good opinion of the Begum. His authority was assumed by a more successful rival.

'This conduct in the Begum, exciting much animosity and many heart burnings between the two rival Commanders, Mr. Thomas resolved to embark his fortunes on a different service.—He, therefore, quitted the Begum Sumroo, and, about 1792, betook himself to the frontier Station of the British Army, at the post of Anopshire.

'Here

'Here he waited several months, in the expectation of receiving overtures for employment from some of the Native Powers. He was not deceived in these expectations. In the beginning of the year 1793, Mr. Thomas being at Anopshire, received letters from Appakandarow, a Mahratta Chief, conveying offers of service, and promises of a comfortable provision.

'To comprehend the nature and use of Mr. Thomas's services, at that juncture, it will be necessary to recur to the previous situation and prospects of Appakandarow.'

Several Pergunnahs situated in the Mewatty country, South-west of Delhi, were conferred on the British hero by this chief. In his service, and that of Vavon Row his successor, Mr. Thomas continued to the time of his commencing as an independent Prince.

We learn that it was at Jyjur, 'about the middle of the year 1798, he first formed the excentric and arduous design of erecting an independent principality for himself. The country of *Hurrianah*, which from the troubled state of the times had for many years acknowledged no master, but became in turn the prey of each succeeding invader, appeared to him as best adapted for the execution of his purpose.'

'In the district called *Hurrianah*, 90 miles to the north west of Delhi, is the country of Mr. George Thomas. It extends 80 coss* from north to south, and the same distance from east to west. To the northward it is bounded by the possessions of Sahib Sing chief of *Puttialah*, on the north west by the *Batties*, west by the dominions of *Beykaneer*, and south by *Jypore*, south east by the pergunnah of *Dadaree*, east by the districts adjoining to Delhi, and north east by the cities of *Rhotuck* and *Panniput*. That part of the country more immediately occupied by Mr. Thomas, is in shape nearly oval, and extends from sixteen to twenty four coss in different directions. The northern boundary is formed by the river Cauggur, beyond which are the Sick territories; To the south it is bounded by the town of *Behal*, east by *Mahim*, and west by *Behadra*, containing in all 800 villages.

'Within this tract of country, as in most parts of *Hurrianah*, water is scarce, more especially during the hot season. To remedy this inconvenience, the inhabitants have constructed wells of considerable depth, not unfrequently from 120 to 150 feet.

'In addition to this, each district has two or three tanks faced with stone; these afford a plentiful supply of water until the approach of the hot winds of the ensuing season, when they are dried up. The number of wells differ according to the industry of the respective inhabitants. At *Hissâr* for instance are 300, at Hansi 30, at Mahim 100, Tuhiana has only 6, and some of the smaller towns from 2 to 5. In this country the Cauggur river is of the greatest service to the inhabitants. It is overflowed during the rainy season by the ac-

* A coss is expressive of different measures in different provinces: but the best computation makes it equal to about one mile and nine-tenths.

cession of the streams, which issue from the mountains, and on the retiring of the waters, leaves like the waters of the NILE, a rich and greasy earth, which yields an abundant crop of the finest wheat. Other parts of Mr. Thomas's possessions produce joar, rice, bajerah, and various sorts of pulse, chunah, and barley, but the latter depends on the rain that may fall from the month of October to Christmas. Within the aforementioned tract, the pasturage is uncommonly luxuriant, and produces perhaps the largest supply of forage to be met with in any part of Asia. The grass in Hurrianah is also of a very superior quality, both as to wholesomeness and nourishment. Hence the cattle excel those of other parts. The climate is in general salubrious, though when the sandy and desert country lying to the westward becomes heated, it is inimical to an European constitution.'—

'The natives of Hurrianah for a succession of ages having been in a constant state of warfare, possess great personal bravery; they are expert in the use of arms, particularly in the exercise of the lance, sabre, and the matchlock, but though brave they are in disposition cruel, treacherous and vindictive, and when engaged in domestic quarrels, scruple not to kill their antagonist on the slightest and most trivial occasions.

'For his capital, Mr. Thomas selected the town of Hansi; this place is situated 90 miles north west of Delhi, and nearly in the centre of his newly acquired domains. The town standing upon a hill is peculiarly well adapted to a permanent residence.

'No water can be procured within 7 coss, but the garrison has an ample supply of that necessary article, from several wells within the fort. This circumstance renders difficult an attack except at the season of the periodical rains. "HERE says Mr. Thomas (with that energy, and spirited animation, which distinguished him throughout the scenes of his extraordinary life), Here I established my capital, rebuilt the walls of the city long since fallen into decay, and repaired the fortifications. As it had been long deserted, at first I found difficulty in procuring inhabitants, but by degrees and gentle treatment, I selected between five and six thousand persons, to whom I allowed every lawful indulgence.

"I established a mint, and coined my own rupees, which I made current in my army and country; as from the commencement of my career at Jyjur, I had resolved to establish an independency, I employed workmen and artificers of all kinds, and I now judged that nothing but force of arms could maintain me in my authority, I therefore increased their numbers, cast my own artillery, commenced making musquets, matchlocks and powder, and in short, made the best preparations for carrying on an offensive and defensive war, till at length having gained a capital and country bordering on the Seik territories, I wished to put myself in a capacity when a favorable opportunity should offer of attempting the conquest of the Punjaub, and aspired to the honour of planting the BRITISH Standard on the banks of the ATTOCK.*"

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'* To carry his plans into effect, and for the support of his troops, Mr. Thomas appropriated a part of the revenue arising from the lands granted

We have already observed that it was the force brought against him by the contrivance of du Perron, and the treachery created by the intrigues of that insidious adventurer, which proved fatal to the power and extinguished for ever the splendid hopes of our hero, at a time when he was meditating the conquest of the whole of the Punjaub. Never did he appear greater than in the midst of the difficulties with which fortune and his enemies surrounded him, and to which he was rendered unequal solely by the base treachery of those on whom he depended.

Captain F. thus closes his narrative, and sums up his account of this extraordinary man:

'Not long after his arrival on the British frontier, Mr. Thomas inspected his affairs, and on collecting the wreck of his fortune acquired with so much toil and labour, he found himself possessed of a sum, not more than sufficient to procure the comforts of life in his native country, with this he determined to retire from public life to the enjoyment of domestic ease and quiet; and with this intention was proceeding to Calcutta, when death arrested his progress near the military cantonments of *Berhampoor*, on the 22d August 1802. He was interred in the burying ground of that place, and a monument is now erecting to his memory.

'George Thomas was a native of Tipperary in Ireland, about 46 years of age; tall in his person (being upwards of 6 feet in height) and of a proportionate strength of body; his countenance was bold and erect; but from the constant and active use of his limbs, during his long and arduous warfare, he had contracted an elevation of the head which gave him the appearance of stiffness, though in consequence of this elevation, his look was more martial, and indicative of the intrepidity of spirit, which reigned within and which wholly possessed his mind to the last hour of his life.

'Mr. Thomas appeared formed by nature to execute the boldest designs, and though uncultivated by education, he possessed a native

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granted by the Mahrattas, and with much judgment and discernment naturally inherent in liberal minds, endeavoured to conciliate the affections of his men, by granting pensions to the widows and children, or nearest relations of those soldiers who fell in his service. These pensions, amounting to 40,000 rupees per annum, were regularly paid to the respective claimants, a mode which reflects the highest credit on Mr. Thomas's character, but which had long since been anticipated by the wisdom of the BRITISH government in rewarding their veteran SEPOYS. The payments were made every six months, and the nearest relation of the deceased, whether officer or soldier, received the half pay of his rank. This and the expence of casting cannon, the fabrication of small arms, and purchase of warlike stores, consumed that part of Mr. Thomas's revenues, which he derived from the districts granted him by the Mahrattas.'

and inherent vigor of mind, which qualified him for the performance of great actions, and placed him on a level with distinguished officers of the present days.

'That he possessed superior military talents, has we trust been evinced by the relation of the transactions in the preceding pages, and in reviewing his conduct during a long and multifarious warfare, a more competent estimate may perhaps be formed of his abilities, if we reflect on the nature and extent of one of his plans, which he detailed to the compiler of these memoirs, during his residence at Benares. When fixed in his residence at Hansi, he first conceived, and would, if unforeseen and untoward circumstances had not occurred, have executed the bold design of extending his conquest to the mouths of the Indus. This was to have been effected by a fleet of boats, constructed from timber procured in the forests near the city of Ferosepoor on the banks of the Sutludge river; of proceeding down that river with his army, and settling the countries he might subdue on his route, a daring enterprise and conceived in the true spirit of an ancient Roman. On the conclusion of this design it was his intention to turn his arms against the *Punjaub*, which he expected to reduce in the course of a couple of years, and which, considering the wealth he would then have acquired, and the amazing resources he would have possessed, these successes combined, would doubtless have contributed to establish his authority on a firm and solid basis.'—

'His knowledge of the spirit, and character of the different tribes, and nations, that compose the interior of the vast peninsula of India, was various, extensive, and correct; and, no man perhaps ever more thoroughly studied, or more properly appreciated, the Indian character at large. In his manners, he was gentle, and inoffensive, and possessed a natural politeness and evinced a disposition to please superior to most men. He was, as we have already seen, equally a loyal subject to his King, as a real and sincere well wisher to the prosperity and permanence of the British Empire in the East. He was open, generous, charitable, and humane, and his behaviour towards the families of those persons, who fell in his service, evinces a benevolence of heart, and a philanthropy of spirit highly honourable to his character.

'But with these good qualities, the impartiality of history demands, that we should state his errors, and endeavour to discover some shades, in a character otherwise spendid; a quickness of temper, liable to frequent agitations, and the ebullitions of hasty wrath, not unfrequently rendered his appearance ferocious, yet this only occurred in instances where the conviviality of his temper obscured his reason; and for this, on conviction, no man was ever readier to make every acknowledgement and reparation in his power.

'Perfect correctness of conduct, cannot be expected from a character like the one now under consideration, as a seclusion from civilized life, and long absence from the exercise of those duties, which constitute the chief enjoyment of social happiness, must necessarily have tinctured the manners of the man with some portion of the spirit of the barbarians, with whom he was so long an inmate.

'Upon the whole, however, we may be justified in remarking that

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on a review of the life, and actions, of this very extraordinary man, it is difficult which most to admire, whether the intrepidity of spirit, by which he was incited to the performance of actions, which by their effect raised him from the condition of a private subject to rank and distinction among Princes; or, the wonderful and uncommon attachment generally exhibited towards his person, and interests, by natives of every description, who fought and conquered with him in his long and arduous career, and, whose assistance exalted him for a time to a height of respectability and consequence that seldom falls to the lot of an individual.'

The present volume contains much information respecting the warlike habits, usages, manners, and character of the nations of North Western India. It is rather inaccurately composed, both by the author and the printer.

Jo.

ART. XVII. *The Costume of Hindostan,* elucidated by Sixty coloured Engravings; with Descriptions in English and in French. Taken in the Years 1798 and 1799. By Balt. Solvyns, of Calcutta. Royal 4to. 8l. 8s. Boards. Orme.

THIS beautiful and expensive publication furnishes little matter for comment. The plates, we are told 'have been taken from Original Drawings made in Bengal, and the different figures which they represent are distinguished by appellations peculiar to that province; though the descriptions will be found appropriate to every part of India.' These descriptions are in general extremely short; and notwithstanding that they may be sufficient for those Gentlemen who have resided in India, 'recalling to their memory scenes with which they were formerly familiar,' they will not be found by others sufficiently 'elucidatory of the Manners and Customs of the Natives of Hindostan.' Had some introductory treatise on this subject been prefixed, it would have added considerably to the value of the work.—It is remarked in the preface, which contains little more than a page of letter-press, that

'In the present race of Hindoos, the observer of nature will see, perhaps with little variation, the same features, customs, character, and religious mysteries, which history has recorded of their ancestors, at a time when the inhabitants of few other parts of the globe were in a state of civilization, and which will be found to bear a striking resemblance to the records of Holy Writ; while it is unquestionable, that their primitive manners have been preserved amongst them by an immutable attachment to their ancient religion.'

It is certain that the inhabitants of the East have not been subject to those changes of custom, and caprices of fashion, which have prevailed among European nations, and that their present manners and usages resemble those of their ancestors

whose history is recorded in the Bible: but the Plates in this series do not elucidate this point, nor do the subjects appear to have been selected for this purpose. If the attachment of the Hindoos to their antient religion be *immutable*, the Missionary Society can entertain very slender hopes of their conversion.

No List of the Plates is given either at the beginning or the end of this volume,—a palpable omission in a publication of this nature; and to attempt to supply it here would occupy more room than we can conveniently spare. It must suffice if we observe that the Figures represent Asiatics in their several dresses, trades, occupations, professions, amusements, and ceremonies; and if we then specify a few.

The first plate represents 'An Ooria or Orissa Brahmun offering his devotion to the Sun,' to which the following description is subjoined:

'When they repeat muntras or holy texts, counting their beads, the ceremony is often performed under their drapery, and sometimes with their hands and beads in a bag; the Hindoos being obliged to be *intolerably** secret in religious matters. It is generally known that the Brahmuns are the priests of the Hindoos, and that, by the tenets of their religion, to them are assigned the duties of reading and teaching their sacred books, of sacrificing, of assisting others in sacrifices, of giving alms if rich, and if indigent of receiving gifts; they are forbidden trade, service, and the performance of all menial offices. They are generally named from the countries or sectaries to which they belong, and are all held in respect and veneration, by Hindoos of every part, yet the Brahmuns of one country will not eat from the hands of a Brahmun of another.

'It is to be remarked, that although the Brahmuns are forbidden to enter into any trade, or engage in any kind of servitude, yet it is well known there are many of them who pursue commerce, and that there are a still greater number, who enter into the service both of the Europeans and Mohammedans, particularly the Maratta Brahmuns, who have insinuated themselves into various departments of every government, and into the offices of every agent and merchant of any respectability in India. They are the accountants of both, and owing to this circumstance, which embraces a curious fact, the Maratta states have the best means of ascertaining, with the greatest nicety, the revenue of every government and the fortune of every individual.'

In succession, we are presented with a Chittery (a religious order next in eminence to the Brahmun)—a Dybuck or Astrologer—an Auhheer, or a Milk and Curdseller—a Rowanny Bearer or Chairman—a Tauntee, or Weaver, with the manner of working the loom. The account of the last ought not to be overlooked; since it will probably surprize the admirers of

* What does this mean?

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the elegant manufactures of India, to be informed that these are executed without any complex machinery:

'The loom is rude and simple, yet with such machinery they manufacture those beautiful muslins that are in Europe so much sought after and admired. The texture of some of them is so extremely delicate, that when spred between two persons, the appearance is that of a mist or fog, and although a yard and a quarter wide, can be drawn through a wedding ring. The weaver generally sits on the ground, and there is an excavation under the loom, in which he places his legs.

'These people are very industrious and equally inoffensive; their wages are small, and they are therefore necessitated to labour incessantly to support their families, which are generally very numerous.'

We have also a Dandy or Boatman—a Jellee-a, or Fisherman—a Brijbasi or guard—a Kawra, or Hog-keeper, with the method of carrying pigs (from their size, we should call them rats) to market—a Puckimar, or Bird catcher—a Sircar, or underling to the Bannyan—a Jummadar, or superior out-of-door servant—a Kherch-Burdar, or House Purveyor—a Hooka-Burdar, or Hooka Purveyor, carrying the Hooka, or oriental Smoaking Machine—a Durzee, or Taylor, which is said to be a profession not considered so contemptible as in Europe—a Hircarrah, or message and letter carrier—A Syce, or Groom—an Aubdar, or cooler of water and wines—a man of distinction in his family dress—a Bauluck, or dancing-boy—a Behaleea, or Hindoo Soldier—a Seapoy, or native Soldier—a ditto in the dress introduced by Europeans—a woman of distinction—Ditto of inferior Rank.

The descriptions which accompany these last mentioned plates will not excite, in the bosoms of our European fair, any envy of Asiatic ladies, either in high or low condition:

'When a woman of distinction is married, she cannot with propriety wear shoes, or smoke the Hooka.

'The women of distinction amongst the Hindoos are certainly allowed greater indulgence before marriage than after, for this reason, *namely*; that they are mere infants when they enter into that state, but after marriage they are treated with every possible respect; so far at least as the custom of their country and religious institutions will permit. They have, however, but a very confined taste of the happiness resulting from the conversation of their husbands, it being considered as derogatory in the man to hold such communication.'—

'When a female becomes a widow, she cannot wear coloured borders to her cloaths, nor any ornament excepting a necklace of wooden beads; and in order to exterminate from her mind all ideas of vanity, her head is shaved, and she becomes a kind of servant in her own family. By the Hindoo laws, a widow cannot marry again, and therefore in order to subdue her passions, and deprive her of personal at-

traction, she is stripped of every ornament and reduced to a state of servility.'

The ensuing portrait represents a decently dressed female figure, called a Hidgra, or Hermaphrodite: but this plate, which fortunately presents nothing discriminating to the eye, might have been suppressed; together with the description, which is not so modestly attired as the figure.—The Ramganny, or Dancing Girl, is also in a very decorous attitude and dress; though the annexed account is not very delicately expressed. The movements of these dancing girls are said to be 'either extremely rapid or solemnly slow.'

Many of the drawings exhibit persons playing on musical instruments employed in their religious ceremonies. One of these is called Kaura:

'It is a musical instrument beaten with one stick, frequently used at the ceremony of throwing their gods and goddesses into the water at the feast of Durgah or Calee. Madam Durgah is the goddess who has deified the Ganges, and is held in great veneration. In October every year, they celebrate her festival; it lasts several evenings, on three of which successively the natives visit each other, and adore their divinity, which is finely ornamented with tinsel, &c. The rich also celebrate this festival in a splendid manner at their own houses, and introduce a pantomime on the occasion; to the ridiculous tricks of which the honest Indians are particularly partial. On the third evening, however, their adoration is changed into curses and execrations: they take their idol on their shoulders, load it with every ignominy, and, carrying it to the banks of the Ganges, throw it into the river.'

The plates are finely executed, but on the style of the descriptions we can bestow no compliment. The volume may be considered as one in the suite of *Costumes* which we have lately noticed. See Rev. Vols. 33. 39. and 45.

Mo.y.

ART. XVIII. *Bath, illustrated by a Series of Views*, from the Drawings of John Claude Nattes; with Descriptions to each Plate. Folio. 7l. 7s. Boards. Miller. 1806.

AMONG the superb publications of the picturesque kind which have lately appeared, we do not recollect to have seen any one more striking than that which is now before us. The views (thirty in number, including the vignettes at the beginning and end) are happily chosen, and beautifully finished; and it is no inconsiderable part of their merit that the artist has not sacrificed fidelity to effect. Oxford is not more celebrated for its public than Bath for its private buildings; and, as it is remarked in the preface to this work, 'perhaps no city in the kingdom could

could be so proper for the purpose of picturesque illustration as that of Bath and its environs. The variety and beauty of its scenery are almost infinite;—it unites some of the finest specimens of modern buildings with the splendid remains of antiquity; it possesses great inequality of ground within the town itself, and it combines the finest effects arising from the mixture of a rich and romantic country with grand and handsome buildings.'

That all who visit this city may judge of Mr. Nattes's accuracy, he has specified the point of view from which each drawing is taken; and in order to vindicate artists in general from the charge which has been preferred against them, of being more intent on beauty than on correctness of delineation, he offers some remarks, which, though insufficient to their complete exculpation on this head, will serve to prove that the accusation is often inconsiderately preferred:

'Most people judge of a place and its representation merely by a recollection (often vague and indefinite) of the spot itself. They seldom go and compare the one with the other. And it is to be observed, that persons in general see places merely from the common road as they pass along, particularly in towns; while the artist, before he begins his drawing, considers the object he is about to delineate in various points of view. He goes to the right and to the left, to the top of the hill and to the bottom, in order to fix on the most advantageous point of view from which to make his sketch; and this spot may be, and frequently is, in some obscure or out of the way corner, or some private court or garden or window, where no body goes but for the same purpose as himself, and from whence the buildings, &c. put on a very different appearance, and the combination of various objects is totally unlike what it is as they are commonly seen. Surely then the artist is not to be called incorrect only because he sought out the best view of his subject, and that happens to be from an uncommon situation.'

These hints merit consideration, when we compare drawings with the landscapes delineated. Before we decide on the inaccuracy of the draftsman, we should place ourselves on the spot from which each view was taken.

According to our recollection, Mr. Nattes has been a faithful delineator; and his drawings are sufficiently numerous to give foreigners, and those of our countrymen who have not visited Bath, an idea of the beauty of this city and its environs. The Plates (which are coloured) besides two general views of Bath, contain representations of the King's, Queen's, and Cross Baths—of Pulteney Bridge—Royal Crescent—Milsom-street—South Parade—Orange Grove—Pump Room—Axford and Paragon Buildings—North and South Parades—Bathwick Ferry—Interior of the Concert Room—Sidney Hotel—Bridges

in

in Sidney Gardens—Old Bridge—Interior of the Pump Room—New Rooms—Marlborough Buildings—Town-Hall, Market, and Abbey—Interior of the Abbey Church—Pulteney Bridge from the North Parade—Old Ferry—Aqueduct Bridge, Claverton—Bradford—Bradford Old Bridge—Sidney Gardens—View of Pulteney Street.

The subjoined account of the views is concise; and the principal portion of the letter-press is occupied with an history of Bath, from the earliest to the present time, and of the Abbey Church: with a biographical Sketch of Beau Nash, as he was commonly called, the celebrated Master of the Ceremonies. The buildings of Bath, however, are not neglected; and the descriptions, where descriptions are necessary, are appropriate and sufficiently full.

To the plate exhibiting the Royal Crescent,—which perhaps is the most beautiful collection of private dwellings in the world, presenting externally a magnificent Ionic screen, and forming altogether numerous habitations of great internal elegance and convenience,—the following particulars respecting it, and the progress of architecture in Bath, are affixed:

'As Bath continued to improve in magnificent and splendid houses, so did the luxuries and comforts of their internal decorations drive out the former clumsy and inconvenient ornaments of the rooms. Till the commencement of the eighteenth century there were no carpets used; but it was usual among the inhabitants to stain the floors of a dark brown colour, by means of soot mixed with small beer. Mr. Wood, to whom Bath is indebted for the commencement of its new buildings, gives a long account of the manner in which the houses used to be furnished and decorated. About the year 1728, he first turned his mind to building. New houses and streets were no sooner finished, than greater elegance in the furniture began to be displayed. Instead of dirty floors, white walls, and coarse woollen furniture, carpets and other luxuries were introduced. At this period Queen Square was begun; then Gay-street, the Circus, and Brook-street followed. After this arose the magnificent range of buildings, called the Royal Crescent, of which a view is now given. The front of the Crescent is, in fact, part of an ellipsis. The houses are all regular, and thirty in number. The first and second stories are included within the heights of a noble range of pillars of the Ionic order, which support the superior cornice. It has been objected, and *not perhaps without some reason*, that this building looks rather bald and poor from want of ornament, particularly on the ground floor, and about the windows. This probably is true, when examined in detail; but if by these means it lose any thing in richness and elegance, it gains more in magnificence and grandeur, to the perfection of which simplicity of parts is in some measure essential. The houses themselves are both elegant and convenient, nor is the form of the arms injured by the greater extent of the exterior or back line of circumference, compared with the front, for the whole building is only a small part of a very

very large ellipsis, and by management in the building, the increased width of the houses as they recede is not very perceptible.

'There is no part of the city which commands a finer or more pleasing view than the houses of the Crescent. Immediately in front lie what are called the Crescent Fields, gradually declining into a rich valley, through which the Avon flows towards the Severn, while the distance is closed by a variety of finely wooded and fertile hills, many of which are now ornamented with buildings One point is particularly striking; it is called Barrow Hill, and rises rather abruptly, and in a picturesque manner.

'The point of view, where the present drawing was taken, is from a house near the centre of Marlborough Buildings.'

The objection to the Crescent, that it looks rather bald and poor, if we enter into a detail of the parts of the private buildings of which it is composed, is in our opinion without reason. It was the intention of the architect that it should produce its effect as a whole; and therefore he has bestowed no ornaments on those parts which mark its appropriation to the convenience of man. The entrances, being in the basement, are mere perforations; and no dressings are given to the windows between the columns. This simplicity, as the author afterward observes, adds to its grandeur, because the *oneness* of design is broken in the least possible degree.

In narrating the history of the city of Bath, the author ridicules the fabulous story of Lud Hudibras and his son Bladud, and is contented with tracing its origin to the times of the Romans; who, having been accustomed to the use of warm baths in Italy, made this spot a favoured station, and constructed baths of which the remains were not long since discovered. Here a temple was dedicated to *Apollo Medicus*; and the Υδατα θερμα acquired the title of *Aquæ Solis*, or Waters of the Sun.

After the Romans had relinquished their power in Britain, the Scots, Picts, Caledonians, Saxons, and Danes ravaged the island, and Bath often became an object of contest. When this city fell under the power of the Saxon chief Ceaulin, king of Wessex, A.D. 577, it changed its Roman name for that of *Hat Bathun*, or Hot Baths, and its inhabitants were driven into exile. From the Saxons, it passed to the Danes; and an extract is here given from Domesday Book, which exhibits its state under William the Norman, commonly called the Conqueror. Soon after this period, the history of Bath is combined with that of the Church and Abbey, and ecclesiastics display their power and influence. During the first part of the reign of Henry III. the city of Bath was held by the Prior at the annual sum of twelve pounds, during the king's pleasure. A.D. 1377, in the 51st year of Edward III. this city contained only 570 lay inhabitants, while the ecclesiastics of the archdeaconry,

beneficed and unbeneficed, amounted to 201. The various fate of Bath, during the civil wars, is noticed, and the visit to it made by Charles II. after the Restoration *. The steady attachment of this city to the royal cause in the melancholy reign of James II. is asserted. At the same time, however, we are informed that some few persons were executed for supposed rebellion, after a mock trial under the infamous Jefferies, whose memory is so justly intitled to execration; and that it may continue to be execrated, we shall transcribe the Warrant for their execution, as a curious example of his cruelty and brutality:

" Somersetshire { Edward Hobbes, esq^r / Sheriffe of ye countie aforesaid, } to the con^bles & others his Maties officers of the cittie & burrough of Bath, greeting: Whereas I have rec^d a war^t under the hand & seale of the right hon^ble the Lord Jeffreys for executing of several rebells within yor said cittie: These are therefore to will & require you immediately on sight hereof to erect a gallows in the most public place of yor said cittie to hang the said traytors on, & that you provide halters to hang them with, a sufficient number of faggots to burn the bowells of the fower traytors, & a furnace or cauldron to boyle their heads & quarters & salt to boil therewith, half a bushell to each traytor, & tar to tar y^m with, & a sufficient number of spears & poles to fix & place their heads & quarters," &c.

Notwithstanding the cruelties practised under James II. in the West, Bath espoused the cause of the Pretender; and many persons in that city favoured the Rebellion in 1715: but they were discovered by the vigilance of government.

With the view of the Abbey Church, commences the monastic history, which continues to the end of the volume: but, as we lately gave a sketch of this period in our account of the Plans and Designs of that venerable Structure published by the Society of Antiquarians †, it is not necessary for us now to advert to any part of this detail; except to point out a singular circumstance in the history of Monks, who, though in general proverbially indolent, established the woollen manufacture at Bath by their activity and perseverance.

The descriptions which accompany the plates, though on the whole neatly executed, are not without errors of style: but, in a work of this kind, correctness and elegance of literary composition are inferior considerations.

At p. 38, *Anna Regina sacrum* should be *Annæ Reginæ sacrum.*

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* See farther historical particulars relative to this city, M. Rev. Vol. xl. N. S. p. 226. &c.

† See Rev. Vol. xxxii. N. S. p. 426.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JULY, 1806.

BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 19. *Memoirs of Charles Lee Lewes*, containing Anecdotes, historical and biographical, of the English and Scottish Stages, during a Period of forty Years. Written by Himself. 4 Vols. Crown 8vo. 16s. Boards. R. Phillips.

In these volumes, the author seems to have heaped together every anecdote that he could collect, concerning the theatrical personages of his own times. Amid such an assemblage, some entertaining articles will doubtless be found, but they are mixed with a great quantity of rubbish. So inattentive has the compiler been to the selection of that which possesses novelty or interest, that, having mentioned Mr. Collins, he repeats the stale stories introduced by that Gentleman into what he termed his *Brush*. 'Having' says he, 'been witness to many of them above thirty years ago, they are surely as fair game for me as for him. Mr. Collins knows they existed from twenty to thirty years before ever he rummaged them, and are now the standing green room jokes of every theatre in England, Ireland, and Scotland.' This is, doubtless, a very good reason for retailing them over again.

The *heaviest* charge, however, against this unmerciful compiler, is that he has nearly filled two volumes with 'memorials,' 'petitions,' and 'complaints,' and all the technical proceedings of a Scotch lawsuit between two Edinburgh managers! Volumes may in this manner be multiplied, but the stock of amusement will never be enlarged. *O.*

NOVELS.

Art. 20. *The Morlands.* Tales illustrative of the Simple and Surprising. By R. C. Dallas, Esq. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co.

We perfectly agree with Mr. Dallas that the value of these works of imagination consists in the faithful picture of mankind which they present; and that 'when the author transports the reader into the regions of improbability, his only view is to amuse idleness and to gratify wonder,—the passion of children.' Mr. D's just discriminations of character are evidences of his acquaintance with the world; and the blended lights and shades, with which he paints his pictures, make them as the French say "*sauter aux yeux.*" These lights and shades constitute the tempered virtues which form that kind of equivocal character "*good in the main*;" and personages of this description are the friends of Morland. The Curate of Reading, though affectionately interested in Morland's welfare, comes suddenly into his room like Job's messenger, and acquaints him with the series of misfortunes that had befallen him,—the death of his only protectress, the privation of his little fortune, of his situation, of his studies, of his every happiness in life,—with the most philosophic apathy, though with tears in his eyes, and the sympathetic address on opening his Pandora's box, of

"having

"having bad news to tell his *dear Ned.*" In this well wrought dialogue, we see one of Job's comforters sitting for the picture of the Reading Curate; and from this conference we pass to the reception which Morland experiences from the Vicar of Holcomb, and which may serve as a farther illustration of the truth of the proposition, "that gifts of benevolence and humanity are not *always* brought in baskets of flowers."—The comic scene of the passionate Whitaker, who quarrels with his tables and chairs for being placed on castors, and spinning him round the room, owing to an angry jerk given by himself in the rage of disappointment, is worthy of *Moliere*; and the dialogue that follows, between Morland and the Vicar, is a finish to the picture.—The reader will not resign his pleasure here, but will pursue the narrative with sufficient interest in the fate of the hero, through a long journey of three volumes, without impatience for that harbour of rest, the *denouement*; yet, that we may not trespass on the rules of our critical veracity, we must confess a *gape* or *two* on the fantastic scenery at *Broke Hall*, and the exaggerated character of the lady of that mansion. Many excellent reflections, and precepts of the best morality, occur in the work: we wish that our young Collegians were all *Morlands;* and that the family of the Jones's would people a colony!—Having already given our sentiments on works of the imagination, and agreed with Mr. D. that such will please most as are most restrained within the pale of probability, we may be supposed to have no partiality for the second tale, which forms the fourth volume; indeed we may be allowed to wish that Mr. D. had not thought it necessary to maintain his position by the proof of illustration, which exhibits a narrative of events as romantic as the fictions of Ariosto. We also disapprove the plan of fabricating one story on the basis of a preceding tale: it is building one house on the top of another, and exposing them to the chance of both falling together.

Mr. May.

Art. 21. *St. Julian:* in a Series of Letters. By Mrs. J. T. Serres. Crown 8vo. pp. 167. 4s. sewed. Ridgway. 1805.

The prominent merit of this novel is its brevity, which is even greater than the number of pages would indicate; for its fair author, to encourage the paper manufacture, very liberally intersperses her narrative with blank spaces. Her tale, though hackneyed, is sufficiently simple. The happiness of two fond lovers is interrupted by the heroine being compelled to marry an old Duke. The disconsolate St. Julian roams and laments, and is very ill with a fever: but, in due time, he becomes a Duke himself, his rival dies, and he espouses his Viola with an immense fortune, the favor of his sovereign, and unceasing felicity.—The correspondence is, on the whole, more decorous and honourable than might be expected between a married lady and her unmarried lover. Mrs. Serres occasionally expresses the language of tenderness and passion: but she is a stranger to that glowing and fascinating eloquence which blinds us to the immorality of the *Nouvelle Heloïse*. Too often she dispenses with the common rules of grammar; and, sometimes, she lets her prose *run mad*, as in these exclamations:—'for art not thou in all its varied beauties seen?' —'Alas!

—'Alas! at this instant its withered beauties are strewed around me, by tempest driven o'er the once verdant plain.'—'Weep on *ye* darkened zenith, for sorrow has fixed her empire o'er my soul;—blow ye winds, and o'er yon mountain pines convey my sighs unto my fair,' &c. 'The ideas of philosophy *adds*'—'the smallest portion of his faculties *are.*'—*Punctuation* is somewhat affectedly used for *inscription*, and the verb *response* for *answer.*

111 From a passage in p. 107, a novice in geography would conclude, that Vesuvius is visible from Languedoc. We confess that we are dull enough not to admire such a sketch of fictitious perspective. **Muir.**

Art. 22. *The Forest of St. Bernardo.* By Miss M. Hamilton. 12mo. 4 Vols. 18s. sewed. Hughes. 1806.

Some invention is displayed in the formation of this tale, but its composition is incorrect; and in those parts which relate to foreign countries and manners, the fair author is by no means fortunate: she talks of casting anchor '*in the harbour of Madrid,*' of the Lord Alphons*a*, the Duke of Torcell*a*, in *Spain*, &c &c.—Her friend Mr. Milward, too, raises a *troop* of horse, and is made a *Colonel*; a prodigality of rank which even the present age of volunteering has not sanctioned. **G. 2.**

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 23. *An Essay on the Necessity and Utility of adhering to first Principles of Religion:* including a brief Summary of the leading Truths of Christianity. By R. Wright. 12mo. 1s. Vidler.

This little tract is professedly designed for the use of 'simple-hearted and unlettered christians;' the author's object being to simplify religion, and to remove all unnecessary ground for contention. His positions are that 'the fundamental doctrines of the gospel are to be found in the plain declarations of the N. T.; that whatever is not plainly and positively asserted ought not to be regarded as an essential part of christian truth; and that its leading doctrines depend not on the construction of particular phrases, but appear on the very face of the Gospel history.' If christians were to follow Mr. W.'s sound advice, they would not be divided as they now are into a variety of sects: but it is by no means easy to persuade contending religionists, that their differences relate principally to matters which are not essential parts of the Christian system. He who endeavours to simplify is generally thought to be a denier of the truth; and Mr. W. must prepare himself for that obloquy which sensible men generally receive from mankind, when they endeavour to make them as clear sighted as themselves. **Mo. y.**

Art. 24. *The Plain Man's Epistle to every Child of Adam:* or the Voice of Earth to his Brother Dust. 12mo. 2s. Jones. 1805.

The *plain man*, who we hope is also *honest* and *true*, thus addresses the reader: 'I do not ask thee whether thou art a king or a subject,—a rich man, or a beggar,—learned, or unlearned,—a papist or a protestant,—a presbyterian, or an independent,—a baptist, or a quaker,—a methodist, or a member of any other sect or party,—but I ask thee whether thou art a child of Adam—one of his ruined posterity,

sterity, &c.—If thou art, I then earnestly intreat thee to catch the present moment, and read over the plain man's epistle without delay: it is directed to thee.'—In this manner, the writer offers himself, or rather his composition, to our regard. He revives old titles, uses old phrases, without explaining them, and in like manner recurs to old articles. Should he by this method prove the means of recovering any one from falsehood and vice, and leading him to truth and rectitude, happy indeed will be the effect. Hi.

Art. 25. *The Principles of Religion, as professed by the Society of Christians, usually called Quakers.* Written for the Instruction of their Youth, and for the Information of Strangers. By Henry Tuke. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Phillips and Fardon.

A considerable schism having occurred in that respectable society of christians commonly denominated Quakers, on which we have recently taken the liberty of animadverting with some freedom, we opened this manual of their principles with the fixed resolution of giving the subject a serious review; in order to discover whether we had been betrayed into any error in our report of the matter at issue between the contending parties. Our object was to maintain the cause of truth and liberality; and in examining the publication of Mr. Tuke, now before us, which we conclude to be an *ex cathedrâ* statement of principles, our endeavour has been not to combat any Quaker tenet, but to ascertain how far different parts of their creed harmonize and are in accordance with each other. The several articles of their religious system are arranged under the following heads; on Religion in general—Holy Scriptures—Christian Religion—Influence of the Spirit—Divine Worship and Gospel Ministry—Baptism and the Supper—Religious observance of Days and Times—Oaths and War—Amusements—Dress and Address—Civil Government—Discipline.

As the peculiarities which distinguish this exemplary sect from other Christians are well known, we shall not regularly notice each topic above specified; confining ourselves to their notions respecting the Holy Scriptures, and the general communication of the light of the Holy Spirit, which seem to be the topics of controversy among them. In the first place, they believe that the Scriptures of the Old and New Testament were given by the inspiration of God; and yet, in the second place, they maintain that 'there is not only a possibility, but a danger of placing too much dependance upon them, by preferring them to that Divine principle of light and life afforded to man, of which they testify.' Now these two propositions appear to us not only to be completely irreconcileable, but to be subversive of all Christian harmony. Here are two infallible guides to truth, and yet there is danger (it is said) of preferring one to the other. If the Scriptures be divinely inspired, why are they not to be cited as completely decisive in all controversies, and why should we seek for any other court of ultimate appeal? On the other hand, if the Divine principle of light and life be in all cases to decide, where is the utility of contending for the plenary inspiration of the sacred writings? Most Christians, persuaded of the influence of the Holy Spirit, but believing also in the divine authority of the Scriptures, appeal to the

written evidence of the latter in all controversies, and not to the inward light of the former; the Quakers, however, appeal both to the *inward light* and to the *written text*, one as immediately and the other as mediately from God, and then appear to refer it to the Church to decide according to the nature of the case. We honestly confess that this conduct seems to us to be liable, in practice, to serious difficulties and hardships. An individual, who believes in the plenary inspiration of the scriptures, and is convinced that this divine evidence ought to determine his conduct, on reading in the Epistle to the Corinthians the Apostle's declaration that he had received a command from Christ to enjoin the celebration of the commemorative ordinance of the Lord's Supper in his church, till he should make his second appearance, may think that this Institution is an indispensable part of the christian system: but to him the Quaker will reply that this ordinance was merely temporary, (though nothing is to be found in the writings, which he states to be inspired, that will authorize this assertion,) and that the Divine inward principle of Light and Life assures him that, as the religion of the Gospel is of a spiritual nature, the commemorative memorials of Christ's death and passion are not now to be offered to our outward senses.

If, however, another Friend, acting on the superior certainty of the inward light, cherishes any doubts respecting the decisive evidence of some parts of the Old Testament, and ventures to believe (solemnly appealing to the suggestions of the Spirit within) that there is some error in those historical records which represent the Deity as ordering the total destruction of the Canaanites, and even of their unoffending children and cattle;—this humane sect, though reprobating war in the strongest terms, will not admit in this case the appeal to the inward light against the Scriptures, but makes the decision of the question to rest on the letter of Revelation. In the former instance, a divine communication under the Gospel is disregarded, and the Divine light within is esteemed the superior guide: in the latter, the Quaker member is refused the privilege of this appeal to the light within, though his doubts respecting the accuracy of the Jewish historian are in perfect harmony with the humane principles of his church; and he is disowned because he avows it as his belief, after solemn prayer and repeated "waitings on God," that the extirpation of the Canaanites and Saul's hewing Agag to pieces before the Lord could not possibly be sanctioned by a divine command.

We undertake not to decide which of these two principles, *Divine Inspiration of the Scriptures*, or *Inward Light*, the Quakers ought to adopt in deciding controversies: but *both*, we perceive, cannot, as they are here explained, be employed, without occasional instances of something like persecution.

Mr. Tuke considers *the inward law* which the Apostle mentions in Rom. II. 14,15, to be a degree of the Holy Spirit: but, if we admit this view of the subject, their Spiritual light means no more than what is called the moral principle. In other places, he interprets it to mean 'the Spirit of truth, which guides into all truth.'

It belongs not to us to attempt the elucidation of this fundamental principle of Quaker faith: but, in rejecting the ordinances of Baptism

and the Supper, the Friends have been governed by their inward persuasion against a weight of evidence which all other Christians have pronounced to be conclusive. 'We believe,' says Mr. Tuke, 'that retaining these ceremonies has a tendency, in general, to settle the minds of the professors of Christianity in unnecessary forms.'

The great object of this sect is certainly to attain the simplicity and purity of the Gospel; and, regarding them in this light, they have always possessed our esteem. We wish them to maintain their high character for liberality and brotherly love; and we offer these remarks from the purest motives, desirous of promoting consistency of principle and practice in a body which, by the operation of discordant doctrines, appears to be threatened with alarming disunion. Mo.

Art. 26. *Sermons, altered and adapted to an English Pulpit, from French Writers.* By Samuel Partridge, M.A. F.S.A., Vicar of Boston, &c. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Rivingtons.

Mr. Partridge states that this work is not properly either a translation or an abridgment, but 'an attempt to point out the just midway between the coolness of English and the inordinate warmth of French pulpit orators.' He has taken the plan and most of the matter from French divines: but he has reduced their diffuse arguments and periods, rejected their rhetoric, and endeavoured to preserve their sound oratory. Whenever it appeared necessary, he has also altered their discourses in respect to doctrine and sentiment, and has introduced many new passages. 'Addressing himself to members of the Church of England, it was necessary that the preacher should reject any superstitious notions which occurred in Roman Catholic, and any peculiarities in Calvinistic writers; retaining the sound Christian piety and morality which abundantly prevail in both.' They are also reduced within very concise limits.—All the Divines from whom he has borrowed are Protestant, except one: they are the Abbé de Cambacérès, brother (we believe) to the late second Consul, and now Archbishop of Rouen; Pierre du Bosc; le Cointe; de la Douespe; P. B. Gautier; Chatelain; Bertrand; Laget; Bertheau; Formey; and Superville.

In fulfilling this design, Mr. Partridge has rendered no small service to the profession, and to the serious part of the public. These discourses, with such alterations as a clergyman of even the least judgment will be able to make, will be found well adapted to edify country congregations, and to answer the purposes of those private families which have not laid aside the custom of concluding the Sunday with domestic worship. They are short, plain, and pithy, and much more interesting than the generality of this class of compositions. Jo.

EDUCATION.

Art. 27. *Prospectus and short Explanation of a Plan upon which Mr. Du Mitand has been employed for some Years:* the Object of which is to simplify, approximate, and assimilate, the Grammatical System, as well of the ten principal Languages spoken in Europe, as of the two learned ones, Greek and Latin; to build them all on the French Tongue, from which they will diverge as from a central

tral Point, to form afterwards different Branches, in an Order analogous to their Affinity and Proximity, &c. 8vo. 1s. Author, Chancery-lane.

Art. 28. *Mr. Du Mitand's Letter to the National Institute of France, explanatory of his Prospectus*, and of his Plan for assimilating and simplifying the twelve most useful Languages; with three Letters to the Secretary of that Assembly on that Subject. 8vo. Pamphlet.

Mr. Du Mitand's prospectus does not sufficiently develope his scheme, to enable us to enter into its merits. We could not, however, help smiling at a prospectus in which the author expresses a fear of 'betraying his secret.' As advertisements of *twelve* grammars, these preliminary publications may answer the author's purpose; unless the *bold* thought of making 'the Greek and Latin languages diverge from the French tongue as from a central point' should obtain for Mr. Du Mitand the character of a *dashing* grammarian. The Letter to the National Institute 'betrays a secret,' which has indeed considerably lowered our expectations from his enterprize, though it has raised our opinion of his prudence. 'In case (says he) I should not in respect of the Greek and Latin *hit exactly the mark at which I aim*, I shall at least approach it; and if *I am a little deceived in my expectation*, it will be comfortable to me to find, that I have dedicated to that study that time which the pleasures hunted after in large towns would otherwise have absorbed.' What comfort, however, will this afford to those who, after having paid their money for the Grammars, find that the object proposed by the compiler is not attained?

Art. 29. *Children's True Guide to Knowledge and Virtue*, or a Collection of early Lessons peculiarly calculated to promote a gradual Improvement in Reading, as well as to lay a valuable Foundation in moral and religious Principles: the Plan and Subject-matter being attentively adapted to the Use of Schools, by J. Taylor, Head-Master of the Academy, Dronfield. 12mo. pp. 72. Longman and Co.

We should have been more inclined to praise this little performance, had not the author so strongly recommended it in the title; yet, whether or not the book itself excels other *introductory* books, it must be acknowleged that the lessons here exhibited are of the utmost value in one respect, as conveying good sense, and inculcating piety and virtue. In this view, the publication has a just claim to regard.

Art. 30. *The Young Mathematician's Assistant, or School master's Guide*, being a short and comprehensive System of Arithmetic, with vulgar and decimal Fractions, Algebra, Geometry, &c. By George Bagley, Shrewsbury. 4to. 5s. 6d. Boards. Crosby and Co.

Truly this is 'a short and comprehensive treatise,' for within 70 pages the author comprises almost all the abstract sciences. Each, then, cannot be treated with much attention. Trigonometry is discussed in three-fourths of a page; and Fluxions, principles and rules, in 2½ pages: but then there is something of a computation for

the circumference of a circle: a matter certainly of some labour.—To what persons is this compendium likely to be useful? To Schoolmasters? it certainly cannot be useful to Students. We never saw, before we saw this book, so curious and so elaborately bad a method of printing mathematics: every thing is huddled together. We wish that the author would print like other people; and indeed we might have added, *write* like other people. RW.

Art. 31. *The Young Lady's New Guide to Arithmetic*, &c. &c. By John Greig, Private Teacher. 12mo. 2s. Boards. Crosby and Co.

An useful book,—but why, by its title, meant exclusively for young Ladies? From some of the instances and cases, it appears equally if not more adapted to young Gentlemen. Dº

Art. 32. *The Wonders of the Telescope*, or a Display of the Wonders of the Heavens and of the System of the Universe, written in a familiar and popular Manner, adapted particularly to the Perusal of young Persons; and especially calculated to promote and simplify the Study of Astronomy, among all Persons of all Ages, with 12 Plates, on a Plan never before attempted. 12mo. 4s. 6d. half bound. R. Phillips.

We have no violent dissent against the character of this treatise, as it is set forth in the title-page: but to the complete *novelty* of the plan, we do not subscribe. Some poetry is mixed with the didactic part, which we have before seen elsewhere. The plates are neatly executed. Dº

Art. 33. *Commercial Arithmetic;* with an Appendix upon Algebraical Equations; being an Introduction to the Elements of Commerce. By Christopher Dubost. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Symonds.

A very neat, clear, and precise treatise on Arithmetic, within moderate limits, and drawn up with attention to accuracy and real principles. If it be not so diffuse nor so fruitful of examples as other treatises, we are yet inclined to consider it as sufficiently extensive.—We know not why the author has characteristically intitled his tract *Commercial Arithmetic*. Dº

MILITARY *and* NAVAL AFFAIRS.

Art. 34. *A Defence of the Volunteer System*, in Opposition to Mr. Windham's Idea of that Force: with Hints for its Improvement. 8vo. 2s. Hatchard.

Mr. Windham's plan of national defence, which tends so much to supersede the system of Volunteers, having passed into a law since this pamphlet was written, the author's vindication of the latter can now be of little avail. Many of his observations, however, are well founded; his hints for the improvement of the Volunteers are judicious; and much benefit would, in all probability, be derived from the spirit of emulation which the measures here proposed would diffuse among them.—He considers an augmentation of the regular army

and

and an extension of military patronage as dangerous to our Constitution. With regard to the former, he says, 'In providing against one danger, let us not create a greater; let us avoid the fatal error of the French nation, who, out of the very materials that were to establish their independence, have suffered a chain to be forged to hold them in perpetual durance;'—and with respect to the latter, he exhorts us to 'reflect on the enormous patronage thrown into the hands of an individual by our army establishment: let us not forget that patronage is power, and that where there is power, there may be also ambition, and that these two united are not proper inmates of a free constitution.'—These are weighty considerations, but does the occasion warrant them? The operation of the new training act does not *permanently* increase the regular army; nor can it create any more than a *temporary* patronage, in the event of the levy being embodied and officered in the hour of national danger. The questions at issue between the volunteering and the levy system seem only to be these:—which is least burdensome to the country in its state of preparation, or while it is merely in its course of training?—and which, when brought to its trial at the time of combating an enemy, will be found most efficient for public defence?

Notwithstanding the little encouragement which they may now receive, Volunteers are here intreated to remain at the post of honour to which they have aspired; and undoubtedly, in all instances in which this may be practically eligible, such conduct will be highly honourable to them, and should be viewed by the nation with much gratitude.

Art. 35. *A Vindication of Mr. Windham's Military Plans*; with Remarks on the Objects of his Opponents. 8vo. 3s. Ridgway.

As in the preceding pamphlet the ideas of Mr. Windham were opposed, here on the contrary they are approved and supported. In this vindication, however, no reference is made to the principal objects of the former discussion, the Volunteers and the training *en masse:* but the attention of the writer is directed, 1st, to the necessity of effecting a reform in our military establishment; 2dly, the repeal of the additional Force Act; 3dly, the abolition of the Ballot; 4thly, the improvement of the condition of the Soldier; 5thly, the enlisting for a term of years; and 6thly, the increase of military Rewards. On these points, the propriety and efficacy of the new measures are maintained; in some instances with considerable force of argument, and in others with at least the plausibility of conjecture or of inference. It is certainly right that the subjects hould be fully and freely debated; and a perusal of this pamphlet may be useful in forming an opinion on the merits of the case.—The author very properly illustrates the good effect of enlisting for a term in one particular, viz. the necessity which it would impose on officers to make their regiments in all respects of honourable repute and desirable to the soldier, lest they should lose a disproportionate number of men, by the operation of the power of quitting them, which would be highly prejudicious to their interest and character. We think, also, that his hint of the propriety of enacting that every soldier should notify his intention to quit the service, a year or half a year previously

to the expiration of his term, merits consideration, though some objections to it may no doubt be urged. G.2.

Art. 36. *A Plan or Proposal for the Augmentation of the Regular Army of the Line*, divided into two Parts: 1st, a Comparison of the regular Army of the Line with all the other Branches of the Military Establishment in point of voluntary Service, Origin Expence, Utility, and constitutional Legitimacy. 2dly, The Mode of augmenting the Army of the Line, in which is included a Plan for converting the Militia (constitutionally) into a Branch of the regular Establishment. A new Mode of ballotting for a disposable Force, and for the Reduction of Bounties, &c. is also proposed. By Military Officers. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Seale, Tottenham Court Road.

Under an uninviting exterior, and incorrectly printed, much serious discussion and argumentation are here presented to us, by a person or persons to whom the subject seems to be familiar, and by whom it has been much considered.—It is not within our range to report the various ideas and plans suggested in the course of this pamphlet. We can only state generally that, after an examination of the various descriptions of force subsisting in our service, the authors determine in favour of a regular army on the grounds of utility, expence, and constitutional effect, and that therefore this force should be augmented; while, however, other kinds of troops may be maintained. 'We propose (say they) that 200,000 of the established force in England should be composed of regulars, and never less than that number should be kept up while under the prospect of invasion; and 150,000 in addition should consist of volunteers, peasantry, and yeomanry cavalry:'—any draft from the 200,000, for other service, to be supplied by a new levy, so that this number should always be kept complete and efficient in *England*. In order to effect this augmentation, it is proposed to convert the militia into a branch of the regular army, by methods which we have not room to detail.—The objection of danger to the *constitution* from such measures is not overlooked, but the question is treated with considerable labour; and the writers contend that their suggestions are strictly constitutional, from an examination of the origin and present construction both of the regular army and the militia.

We repeat that a degree of singularity and even of repulsiveness is manifest in the appearance of this tract, and in some of its arguments; but it by no means deserves to be thrown aside with negligent contempt.—Farther remarks on military subjects, from the same pens, are promised, as circumstances may dictate or encouragement may prompt. D.º

Art. 37. *Journal of a Voyage from London to Madeira*, and thence to New Providence, and back again to London, in the Snow *Thames* of London, Charles Burton, Commander. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Robinson.

The sole circumstance worthy of record in this journal, and for which alone it seems to have been printed, is the laudable assistance afforded by Mr. Burton to four unfortunate survivors of the crew of

the Brig Flora of Philadelphia, whom he rescued from the wreck of that vessel in his passage from Madeira to New Providence, in latitude 25° 5′ North. These poor people had remained for thirteen days on the bowsprit of the wreck, subsisting partly on the remains of their dead companions and some salt butter, and afterward on a shark which they had the good fortune to catch. Mr. Burton's conduct deserves every praise; while that of some other masters of vessels, who had previously passed the wreck without any notice, is singularly intitled to execration. G. 2.

Art. 38. *Light Horse Drill Appendix*; containing the Movements and Evolutions of the Regiment. 4to. 7s. Egerton.

The first and second parts of this work were recommended by us in Vol. xxvii. N. S. p. 452. and Vol. xxix. p. 351. We then understood that the author's design was completed, by his having gone regularly through the first rudiments of the Light Horse Drill, to the manœuvres of a squadron: but he has now continued it to the evolutions of a Regiment. He does not mean to attempt the movements of the Line, but is satisfied with having thus exemplified the duties of the privates and non commissioned officers. Do

Art. 39. *The singular and interesting Trial of Henry Stanton*, Esq. of the 8th (or King's) Regiment, on charges for Unofficer-like Behaviour, as preferred against him by Lieut. Col. Young, commanding the said Regimeut. Tried by a General Court Martial held at Doncaster, Aug. 14, 1805, &c. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Egerton.

Mr. Stanton was an Ensign in the 8th Regiment of Foot, and was sentenced to be cashiered for unofficer-like conduct, and disobedience of orders. Some peculiar circumstances, however, seem to have marked this business; and Mr. Stanton has chosen to submit a statement of it to the public, in vindication of his character. It is not our office to interpose any opinion on the merits of the case; nor does such a publication demand any strictures as a literary composition, though it be sufficiently open to them. Do

Art. 40. *Instructions for Mariners, respecting the Management of Ships at Single Anchor:* also general Rules for Sailing. By Henry Taylor of North Shields. 12mo. 2s. Darton and Harvey.

These instructions are concise and perspicuous. They are given as the result of many years' experience chiefly in the coal and Baltic trades; and they are sanctioned by the approbation of the Trinity Houses of London and Hull, as well as by a vote of Ship owners of North Shields at a general meeting. A short address to seamen is added; sensibly exhorting both masters and men to a better observance of that activity and good conduct which formerly distinguished them, than, as Mr. Taylor thinks, can now be said to form their character. Do

POETRY *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 41. *Dramas adapted to the English Stage.* By James Wild. 12 Numbers. 12mo. 1s. each Printed for the Author by John Hayes.

In this neat little publication, we are furnished with Dramas

translated, with considerable alterations, from the French. Their titles are '*Twenty one*,' by Duval; '*From Inn to Inn*,' by Dupaty; '*Doubt and Conviction*,' by Dieulafoy; '*Maids*,' by Le Brun; '*Wives*,' by the same; and '*Frailty* and *Hypocrisy*,' by Beaumarchais. The avowed purpose of the translator is to recommend, on our stage, the preservation of the unities of Action, Time, and Place; and to rescue the originals, which he here brings forwards, 'from the merciless tomahawks of our stage translators, who would most probably, by ridiculous changes of scene, have hacked an Intrigue into half a dozen pieces which they found ingeniously spun *intire*, and have clogged it with persons wholly useless in the unwinding.'—'To destroy,' he adds, 'the unity of Action, Time, and Place, through mere ignorance or in very wantonness, is worse than the art of the Barbarian, who shatters a beautiful column of a single block, to erect an uncouth pyramid with its fragments.'

In Mr. Wild's view of the Drama, 'the most perfect model of construction is that, wherein the fewest persons possible should be engaged in some highly interesting action, fully developing their several characters and designs, conducted by unexpected but verisimilar means uninterruptedly to a striking and moral catastrophe'—This model, as he remarks, 'necessarily excludes the possibility of the smallest breach in the action, of any change of scene, other than the throwing open of some concealed apartment or inner recess, and of any lapse of time beyond that of actual representation, the which our present habits could in no wise allow to exceed three hours.'

These very severe restrictions are not likely, we imagine, to be observed by our modern Dramatists, nor should we promise ourselves any great increase of amusement from the strict observance of them. We should probably be disgusted with abusurdites more glaring in their nature than those which they were endeavouring to avoid: while, in their hesitation about propriety, they could linger in dulness. Mr. Wild, indeed, seems aware of this, when he tells us that 'the contrivance of breaking the representation into ACTS at once widely extends the scope of the Dramatic art, and gives all the freedom to a judicious author that he can possibly wish:' but then each act, he observes, 'is absolutely incapable of admitting any change of scene, any break in the action, any imaginary lapse of time:—Our dramatic muses in this respect are perfect Bedlamites.'—In this opinion, he has the sanction of Dr. Johnson; who, in his life of Rowe, remarks that "in the construction of his dramas there is not much art: he is not a nice obeserver of the unities: he extends time and varies place as his convenience requires. To vary the place is not, in my opinion, any violation of Nature, if the change is made between the acts; for it is no less easy for the spectator to suppose himself at Athens in the second act, than at Thebes in the first; but to change the scene, as is done by Rowe, in the middle of the act, is to add more acts to the play, since an act is so much of the business as is transacted without interruption"

To the abstract propriety of this reasoning, perhaps it would be difficult to object: but are our dramatic readers or spectators prepared to welcome the immense revolution which it tends to produce? What will

will they think when they are told that they are never more to be referred to Act I. Scene 2d. or 3d. and that, having entered a dungeon, they must be contented with their confinement there, even though the prisoner himself may have effected an early escape! Raillery apart, would not too scrupulous an attention to this rule lead us into those absurdities which Dennis, in his coarse but strong criticism on Addison's Cato, has pointed out as necessarily arising from its observance in that play: a criticism, to the truth of which Dr. Johnson himself assents; and which, with more justice than good nature, he has delivered down to posterity by inserting it in his works.

With regard to the pieces which are here selected for translation, it is sufficient to say that they are in general interesting and animated. It is curious, however, to observe that one of these dramas, which are intended to shame the English stage, is copied exactly from a play of our own *Goldsmith*: "*From Inn to Inn*" is but a transcript of "*She stoops to conquer.*" O.

Art. 42. *The Piccolomini's*, a Drama in five Acts. From the German of Schiller. 8vo. 3s. Chapple.

This Drama is so disfigured by the translator, that it would be an act of great injustice to criticise it as the work of Schiller. O.

Art. 43. *Short Poetic Attempts:* principally of a religious and moral Nature. By Damon. 8vo. Price 25 cents. Printed at Lexington (America.)

Some pious Jonathan here seems woefully inclined to court the nine Muses: but we would advise him rather to offer his devoirs to that meek eyed maid, Religion, who is more likely to favour his suit than any of the fanciful damsels of Parnassus. Or it would perhaps be still better for him to restrict his wooings to his favourite *Mary*; with whom it may suffice for him to exert the talents which *Nature* has given to him, without vainly attempting to practise the Rules of *Art*. G.2.

Art. 44. *Adelgitha; or the Fruits of a single Error.* A Tragedy in five Acts. By M. G. Lewis. 8vo. 3s. Hughes.

Though this play is in some parts turgid and in others prosaic, is sometimes loaded with extravagant because unnatural embellishments, and is too often deformed by stage trick and artificial situations, it still possesses much claim to our commendation. The characters are well conceived, and strongly delineated: the action in which they are engaged is interesting and well developed; and the catastrophe is such as must be expected to result from the circumstances which lead to it.—We scarcely know why the author should think 'that Adelgitha's fate will be reckoned too severe.' In a moral drama, it seems to be unavoidable. O.

Art. 45. *Original Poems for Infant Minds.* By several young Persons. 12mo. 2s. Boards. Darton and Harvey. 1805.

Imperfections are discoverable in these compositions, but candour may regard them as pardonable and even admissible in this kind of writing; yet we wish it to be remembered that correctness ought to be observed even in conversing with children.—The poems before us are calculated, on the whole, to amuse and to improve them. H.

MEDICAL *and* CHEMICAL, *&c.*

Art. 46. *Conversations on Chemistry*; in which the Elements of that Science are familiarly explained, and illustrated by Experiments. 12mo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Longman and Co.

We acknowlege that we took up this production with some degree of prejudice. The form of dialogue appears to us in many respects an objectionable method of conveying instruction on strictly scientific subjects; and it is a species of composition in which the writer is peculiarly liable to deviate into extraneous matter. In order to endue it with any of the spirit of conversation, we ought to have a subject in which each party might be able to contribute nearly an equal share of interest and information,—not, as in the present case, where one is almost exclusively the speaker, and the other is "*semper auditor tantum.*"—Our prepossession was also derived from another circumstance; the work is avowedly the production of a female; and we candidly confess that, notwithstanding our respect for the talents of our countrywomen, we apprehend that chemistry is a science by no means adapted to their acquirement. We speak not here of that general view of the subject, which may be learnt from attending a course of popular lectures, or perusing an elementary treatise, but of that intimate and practical knowlege which can only be attained by a familiar acquaintance with the laboratory, and which can alone justify the attempt at giving instruction to others.—As we advanced in the perusal of the volumes, however, we found our feelings of disapprobation gradually diminished; and before we arrived at the conclusion, we were convinced that they were, in a great measure, what we have already styled them, prejudices. The view which is taken of the subject embraces the most interesting and important parts of the science; the leading doctrines of chemistry are explained in a manner which is at the same time familiar and correct; the style is perspicuous; and the dialogue, on the whole, is natural and unembarrassed.

The method which the fair author has followed is first to explain the simple bodies, and afterward the compounds which are produced by their combination: but she has occasionally deviated from this plan, when a rigid adherence to the scientific arrangement would have disunited substances that have an obvious natural relation to each other. Thus ammoniac is classed among the simple bodies, along with the fixed alkalies; and muriatic acid, although hitherto not decomposed, is placed with the compound bodies, possessing similar properties. We fully accede to the justice of these deviations; they are peculiarly proper in a work like the present, which is addressed to those who are previously unacquainted with the subject; and indeed they might be admitted even in the most elaborate treatise on a science of which we yet possess only the rudiments, and in which analogy must, in many instances, supply the place of a strict deduction from fact.

In the first conversation, the subjects of light and heat are discussed. Light is indeed passed over in too cursory a manner, with scarcely any reference to its supposed effect as a chemical agent, or any description of its physical properties. Heat, however, is treated

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in a much more satisfactory way; we have a good account of the prevailing doctrines; the nature of the different modifications which caloric assumes is well described; and some of the most important hypotheses that have been advanced are stated with perspicuity.—From caloric we proceed to the elementary bodies oxygen, nitrogen, hydrogen, sulphur, phosphorus, and carbon; and afterward to the metals, alkalis, and earths, with which the first division of the work concludes.—The second part commences with an explanation of the nature of chemical attraction; the acids and oxids next pass under our review; we have afterward an account of the composition of vegetables; and the whole closes with a sketch of the animal œconomy, so far as it is connected with chemistry.

From the nature and object of this publication, the reader cannot expect a complete account of all that has been discovered on these topics; he must look only for an outline, and be satisfied if that outline is correct as far as it extends. This, for the most part, will be found to be the case; for though we have remarked some errors, they are not numerous, nor of much importance. Bos.

Art. 47. *Observations on Pulmonary Consumption*, or an Essay on the *Lichen Islandicus*, considered as an Aliment and a Medicine in that Disorder. By J. B. Regnault, M.D. late Physician to the Military Hospitals and Forces of France, &c. 2d. Edition. 8vo. 4s. Callow.

A work of apparent respectability, which professes to bring forwards a remedy for pulmonary consumption, undoubtedly demands our notice. In the present instance, we have to apologize to the author for the long period which has elapsed since his publication first made its appearance; and we assure him that the delay has been occasioned by one of those disappointments, to which, in spite of all our care, we are occassionally subject, and not to any want of attention to his performance.

In an introduction, Dr. Regnault states that the practice recommended in his treatise is founded entirely on experience, disclaims all pretensions to theory, and delivers a number of common place sentiments on the superior advantages of observation over mere speculative knowlege. Unfortunately, in the science of medicine it is much more difficult to make observations, and to ascertain facts, than might at first view be supposed. To this cause it must be attributed that publications daily issue from the press, abounding with alleged facts, professing to be the immediate result of observation, and affording in many instances no cause to suspect the author's candor or integrity, and yet subsequent experience proves that he has been completely erroneous. Such instances are so frequent, that we unavoidably acquire a degree of scepticism on these points, and habitually view with distrust all suggestions for medical improvement, more especially for the introduction of new articles of the materia medica. Feelings of this kind certainly recur to us on perusing this treatise, in which it is proposed to cure phthisis by the *Lichen Islandicus*. The author properly begins by giving the botanical character of the subject of his remarks, and then mentions the situations in which it is found, and its sensible properties. 'It is without smell; its taste is slightly bitter when

when chewed; the saliva dissolves it into a soft mucilage. An ounce, of the Lichen, boiled for a quarter of an hour in 12 ounces of water, will yield seven ounces of mucilage, as thick as that which is obtained by dissolving one pint of Gum Arabic in three of water. The inhabitants of Iceland obtain from it an aliment at once agreeable, and nourishing.'—We next proceed to its medicinal qualities. A number of authors, many of high credit and acknowleged ability, are quoted, as bearing the most decided testimony to the virtues of this plant; yet we peruse their opinions without feeling conviction from them. This effect arises in part from the extravagance of the encomiums passed on the Lichen; a vegetable which manifests few sensible properties, yet which is said to possess all the virtues of the whole materia medica, and even to produce effects which we think are beyond the power of any drug. The reader shall judge for himself.

'The Lichen Islandicus is pectoral, tonic, agglutinant, antiseptic, sedative, aperitive, corroborant, and at the same time demulcent. Sibbaldus and Gilibert say that it has been employed with great success in the hooping cough. Some authors have attributed anthelmintic virtues to it. Stoll thinks it very serviceable in Bulimia and in disorders of the urinary passages. Haller and other Physicians assure us that an infusion of it in the form of tea destroys hydatids in the womb. The Physicians of the North regard it as a specific in phthisis; and undoubtedly it is the best remedy which has been yet discovered for this disease.'

It is also recommended for the dysentery, and is said to be diuretic and sudorific: but its power in curing phthisis is the quality asserted by the greatest number of writers and with the most confidence. To account for these surprizing effects, it is supposed by Dr. Regnault that its mucilaginous property is combined with a tonic power, and that its virtues depend on this union. Mucilages, although useful in pectoral complaints, injure the appetite: but the Lichen 'brings with it a corrective of their inconveniences, it improves the tone of the fibres, it strengthens and sharpens the appetite, assists digestion, removes the nausea, corrects the acescence of the humours in the primæ viæ, resists the spontaneous production of acidities, and arrests the putrescent tendency of the fluids in general.'

The next section treats on the use of the Lichen as an article of diet. We have no doubt that it possesses nutritive qualities; and that, in those countries in which corn is procured with difficulty, and the inhabitants are frequently reduced to subsist even on the bark of trees, this vegetable may be advantageously employed: but we cannot agree with the author in his conclusion that, because a substance is suitable for diet, it must necessarily be a valuable medicine;—analogy is decidedly against this conclusion.

Dr. R. next relates several cases in which he apprehends that this remedy had been employed with advantage. They are detailed in rather a cursory manner, so that it is not always easy to discover what was the nature of the complaints; some of them seem to have been pulmonary affections, and some to have been diseases of general debility arising from other causes. A strict attention to diet being enjoined, and the lichen being plentifully taken, in due time health was restored.

We

We would not be understood as casting the most distant reflection on the author's veracity, if we express our doubts whether subsequent experience will be found to justify the claims of the *Lichen Islandicus* as a remedy for phthisis; it would afford us the highest satisfaction to find that those claims were fully substantiated; yet we cannot but fear that it will oppose a feeble barrier against the ravages of this fatal disease. Bos.

Art. 48. *The Popular Compendium of Anatomy*: or a concise and clear Description of the Human Body; with the Physiology, or Natural History of the various Actions and Functions of its different Organs and Parts. Containing also an Article on suspended Animation, with the proper Means to be used for the Recovery of drowned Persons. By William Burke, Surgeon. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Highley.

The title of this compilation expresses that it is intended for popular use; and in the preface the object of the author is more fully explained. Anatomy appears to him that branch of natural science, which is of all others most strikingly illustrative of the wisdom of the Deity; yet he thinks that there are no books in which the general reader can acquire such a knowlege of it as may be sufficient to impress the mind with religious considerations, without burdening it with minute or useless details. The treatises written for the use of professional men are voluminous and expensive; and they are necessarily filled with technical terms which appear harsh and repulsive, and which it is difficult for any person to understand and recollect who does not devote a regular attention to the study. In the present publication, the author has endeavoured to preserve a due medium between the opposite extremes of technical minuteness and superficial negligence; and although his main object is to give the unprofessional reader a concise and perspicuous view of the subject, yet he hopes that it may assist the young anatomical student in the commencement of his career.

We have perused the volume with considerable satisfaction; and we can fairly recommend it to the classes of readers for whom the author professes to have composed it. The first part indeed, which contains a description of the bones and muscles, appears to us rather uninteresting, and we fear that it will be so considered by the general reader; yet we know not how any detailed account of these parts, taken individually, could be made entertaining. The physiological information seems to us sufficiently correct, and by far the best part of the work. A single small volume cannot be supposed to enter into these subjects with any degree of minuteness; all that we can expect is that the most important facts shall be stated with clearness and accuracy; and that on those points on which any important difference of opinion prevails, such hypotheses shall be given as are the least objectionable and the most generally adopted. Dº

Art. 49. *Domestic Pharmacopœia*, or complete medical Guide for Families. Containing an alphabetical Arrangement, in the Form of a Dictionary, of all the Diseases to which the human Frame is liable, with the symptoms attendant on each; and the most simple and rational Modes of treatment, drawn from high and approved Authorities; &c. &c. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Highley.

We

We are not great admirers of Domestic Medicine even in its most respectable form;—as to the present publication, we hope that its insignificance may prevent it from doing much mischief. Bos.

Art. 50. *Outlines of a Treatise on the disordered State of the Lungs:* intended to illustrate the Origin and Nature of many of the most important Diseases; and also to afford proper Indications to assist in their Treatment and Prevention. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Murray.

The object of this anonymous treatise is to prove that the lungs are immediately concerned in the production of many diseases which are usually ascribed to other causes; and the author, having commenced by pointing out the great importance of the pulmonary system in the animal œconomy, afterward attempts to shew in what manner all the other functions of the body are influenced by its action. We do not observe much that is new or particularly striking in his manner of reasoning; and though an idea occasionally makes its appearance, which exhibits something like ingenuity, the general tenor of the discussion is uninteresting. According to the hypothesis of the author, the prime cause of almost all diseases is the state of the air with respect to its purity; if it be less pure than the ordinary standard, it produces sedative effects, and generates fevers, asthma, ascites, hydrothorax, &c.; if on the contrary it be too pure, inflammatory affections are brought on, pneumonia, hæmoptysis, cynanche, &c. This idea of the influence of the lungs is carried to so great a length, that not only the different affections of the parts themselves, or those immediately connected with them, are referred to this source, but diseases are attributed to it which are seemingly the most remote in their origin, such as dysentery, hepatitis, and dyspepsia.—On the whole, the speculation appears to us so totally unfounded, that we deem it quite unnecessary to enter into a particular examination of it. We shall only add, with respect to the execution of the work, that, although there is a great display of method, it is in reality very immethodical; and that, notwithstanding a profusion of italics and capitals, the style is obscure, and in many places almost unintelligible. D.º

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 51. *Evidence taken at Port of Spain, Island of Trinidad,* in the Case of Louisa Calderon, under a Mandamus issued by the Court of King's Bench, and directed to the Lieutenant-Governor; with a Letter addressed to Sir Samuel Hood, K. B., late one of the Commissioners for the Government of that Colony. By Colonel Thomas Picton, late Governor and Captain General of the Island. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Budd. 1806.

Art. 52. *An Address to the British Public,* in the Case of Brigadier-General Picton; with Observations on the Conduct of William Fullarton, Esq. F.R.S. and the Right Hon. John Sullivan. By Lieutenant-Colonel Edward Alured Draper, of the 3d Regiment of Foot Guards; formerly Military Secretary to the late General Grinfield, in the West Indies. 8vo. 5s. Budd.

It is not within our province, and would, we think, be highly unbecoming in us, to offer any opinion on the conduct of General Pic-

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ton in the case of Louisa Calderon, which has already undergone judicial investigation, (see Rev. Vol. xlix. p. 332.) and which we understand is likely to be again brought before our Courts. Nor could we with any more propriety interfere in the dispute between him and Mr. Fullarton, which we have before announced to our readers. We shall therefore only now state that it is incumbent on those who have attended to preceding publications on these subjects, and who wish to form a judgment respecting them, to read the pamphlets of which we have above transcribed the titles, and which contain much important *evidence* and argumentation. In the latter of them, Colonel Draper proves himself a very warm friend, and rather too warm an enemy. His treatment of some gentlemen is not very compatible with the rules of decorum, and (as the newspapers have informed us) has subjected the publication to legal notice. If Colonel D. had been deeply impressed with the truth of the motto which he has selected for his title-page, he perhaps would have defended the cause which he conceives to be the cause of Truth, with more temper and coolness:

"*O magna vis Veritatis, quæ contra hominum ingenia, calliditatem, solertiam, contràque fictas omnium insidias, facilè* SE PER SE IPSAM *defendat!*" CIC. *pro M. Cælio.*

G. 2.

Art. 53. *Love and Satire:* containing the Sarcastic Correspondence of Julius and Eliza. To which *is* prefixed, a few brief Memoirs of an unfortunate Lover. 12mo. 2s. Boards. Allen.

A slight sketch of the character and melancholy fate of a young man who placed his affections on an unfeeling Beauty, and in consequence of whose cruelty he died of a broken heart, introduces their poetical correspondence, which affords some singular specimens of *amatory* composition. These trifles display occasionally a portion of wit, and a talent for sarcasm: such, indeed, on the part of the Lady, as should induce every one to take her at her word, when she declared that she desired *no man to give himself the trouble of professing a passion for her.* We insert a couple of these *billets-doux:*

'*To Eliza, with a Dove.*

'Accept, dear maid, the most delightful Bird
That ever Venus to her chariot bound:
By Love adopted, and by peace preferr'd,
For meekness valu'd, and for faith renown'd.

'A Bird, in which such rare perfections meet,
Alone is worthy to be counted thine:
His Beauty, fair one, is like your's complete,
And his fidelity resembles mine.'

'*To Julius, with a Goose.*

'Swain, I accept your all accomplish'd Dove,
With rapture listen to his plaintive moan,
And vow with constancy the bird to love,
Whose beauty thus reminds me of my own.

'I cannot

'I cannot prove my gratitude too soon,
For such a mark of tenderness conferr'd;
So song for song be thine, and boon for boon,
Kindness for kindness, swain, and bird for bird.

'Lo the best fowl that Lincoln can produce,
My choice has singled from a *tuneful* group;
Accept, *Sweet* Bard, from me as *Great a Goose*
As e'er was fattened in a poult'rer's coop.

'Your verse the merit of the Dove displays:
The compliments I pay my bird are few;
Yet 'tis, methinks, no niggard share of praise
To say how strongly he resembles *you*.'

The talents and disposition of this unknown victim (if any such there was) seem to have merited a better fortune. G. 2.

Art. 54. *Free Disquisitions on the Sentiments and Conduct requisite in a British Prince*, in order to merit the favourable Opinion of the Public. By John Andrews, LL. D. Cr. 8vo. pp. 178. 5s. Bds. Blacks and Parry. 1806.

If the exalted personage, to whom these disquisitions are applicable, will condescend to cast his eye over them, he will find that he has here a polite and liberal adviser. He may not be frequently surprized by novelty in the matter of this performance, but he would have reason to be uniformly pleased with its spirit and manner; with the exception of one instance, which we are very sure will not mislead the august object of the whole. We allude to the disparaging tone of the author when he is speaking of classical pursuits. The charms of the exquisite compositions of Greece and Rome are too familiar to the mind of the royal personage, to allow of his judgment being biassed by unfair representations of this nature; and the plan pursued in the education of the young princess clearly indicates his sentiments on the subject. We hope that Dr. Andrews's doctrine will have no proselytes among those who are destined for the higher walks of civil life; and if even our naval and military youth could, without detriment to their professional progress, be well imbued with this knowlege, we should consider it as highly desirable. Jo.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We do not perceive the justice of the remarks signed Micaiah; and neither their matter, therefore, nor the manner in which they are conveyed, induces us to pay them the compliment of any specific reply.

The statement or 'analysis' of G. S. will be duly considered.

Posco is received, and will be noticed.

Errors, pp. 268, 303.